



THE EARLY MEXICAN HISTORY



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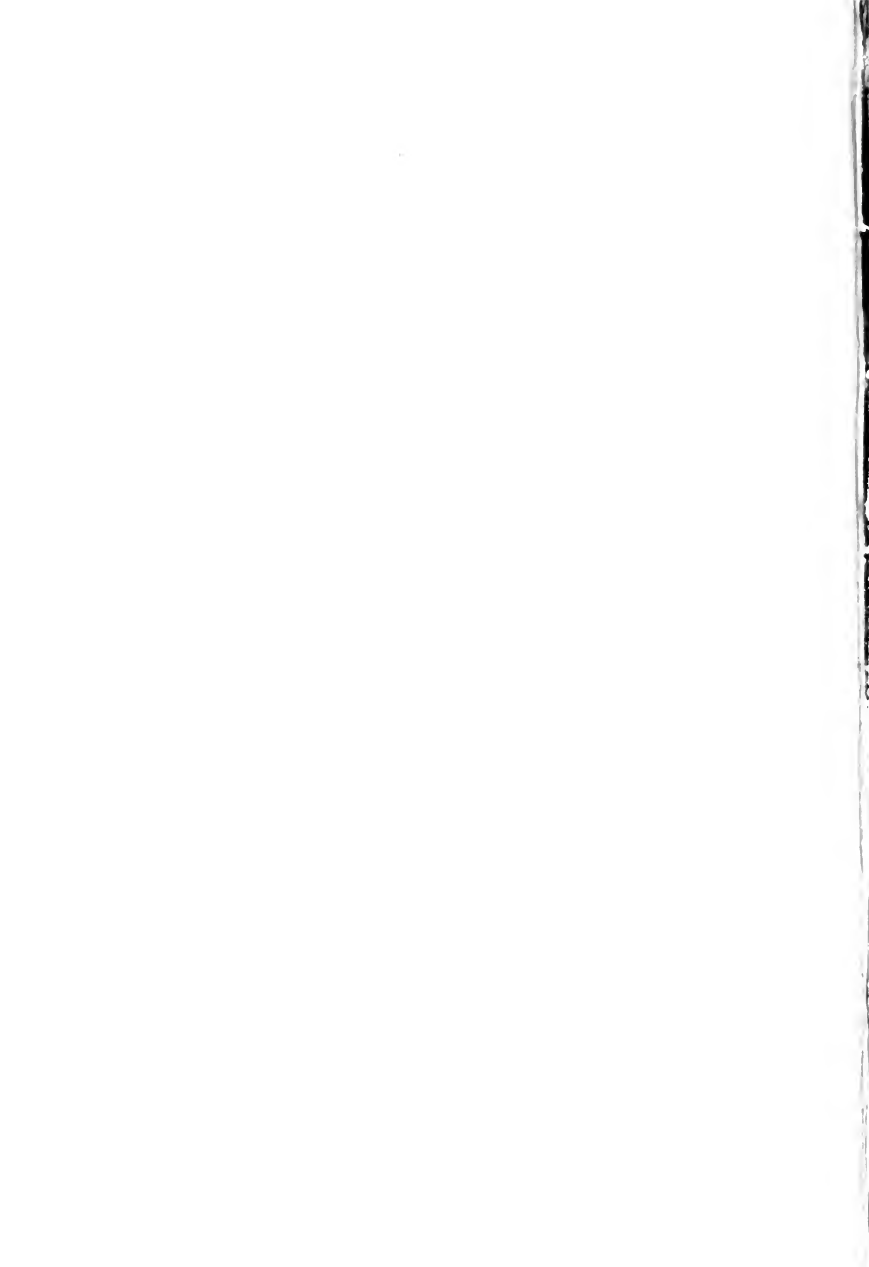


Class E188

Book 967

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NOTES ON EARLY
AMERICAN HISTORY

BY

SOPHIE J. GOWEN

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SYRACUSE, N. Y.

C. W. BARDEEN, PUBLISHER

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ERRATA

Page 30, line 10, for Dias, 1496, read Diaz, 1497.

Page 37, line 2, for district, read distinct.

Page 55, line 19, for 1833 read 1633.

Page 65, line 2, for St. Mary read St. Mary's.

Page 66, line 8, for 1644 read 1634.

Page 122, line 11, for 1775 read 1776.

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P R E F A C E

This little book is the outgrowth of class-room work and is to be used as a supplement to any standard work on American history. The notes cover the first three periods of our history, or to the time of Washington's administration.

Experience and observation have shown that interest must be awakened in the early history of our country, or pupils will have a distaste for history in general; and that, if the early history of America, which is our real history, be understood and appreciated, no difficulty will arise in studying the later development of the country.

A pupil who has rightly learned American history has laid a foundation for good reading and has acquired an interest in the history of other nations.

It has seemed to me that most of our very excellent school histories are somewhat difficult for young students to comprehend. To meet this difficulty, I began, three or four years ago, to give notes to the class, showing them how to study, and how to treat, in a logical manner, the topic under consideration.

Having no thought of publishing the notes I made free use of any and all text-books at hand, so that, to some extent, the book is a compilation.

Believing that no pupil should learn his lesson from the text-book alone, we provide for our students, as

reference books, histories written by Montgomery, Fiske, Barnes, McMaster, Eggleston, Higginson, Gordy, Lossing, and others.

Several of the teachers who have used these notes, and found them helpful, have urged that they be published.

In the hope that they may interest and help a large number, the notes are offered to young students of American history.

NORTH TONAWANDA, N. Y., *December 1, 1900.*

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PERIOD I

THE MOUND BUILDERS

The Mound Builders were the people who built the mounds that have been found in the Mississippi and Ohio valleys and other parts of North America.

Origin.—We do not know the origin of the Mound Builders. The Indians have no traditions in regard to them. The latest and best authorities, however, believe that they were the ancestors of the American Indians, and not a distinct people.

The mounds are of various shapes. Some are circular, some square, and others are in the form of birds or animals. The mounds are of great extent, sometimes covering several acres. There are large numbers of these mounds in the United States. More than two thousand have been opened and ransacked. We infer that some of the mounds were used as habitations, because tools for spinning and weaving, water-jugs, and articles made from coarse cloth have been found in them. Skeletons have been found in others, showing that they were burial places or monuments for the dead. Some appear to have formed sacred enclosures for religious purposes, and others, built upon high hills, were evidently beacons or signal places. By far the largest number were fortifications

for defence. Large forest trees, growing upon them, prove that they are very old.

THE NORTHMEN

The Northmen were people from Norway, Sweden, and Denmark who are said to have discovered America many years before Columbus came to the New World. It is claimed that Biorne Herjulfson, on his way to Greenland, was driven out of his course by a storm and that he then saw the cliffs of Labrador, though he did not land. It is claimed that Leif Ericsson, determining to test the truth of Biorne's report, explored the coast of Massachusetts Bay and Rhode Island in 1001. He found a pleasant climate and such quantities of grapes that he named the country Vinland. We do not know the exact part of the country to which this name was given.

The Northmen, without doubt, made visits to the coast of New England during the 12th, 13th, and 14th centuries. In 1350, a plague depopulated Greenland and no more voyages were made to Vinland.

Results.—The voyages of the Northmen had no permanent results and no direct effect upon the subsequent history of America.

Proofs.—The proofs of these discoveries are found in the traditions of the Northmen, and in the chronicles, or annals, of Iceland. The records give accurate descriptions of the plants and animals of southern New England and mention fish still found in the waters of that vicinity.

THE INDIANS

Origin.—The Indians have inhabited this country

for thousands of years; no one knows how long. We do not know whence they came, but it is probable that they crossed Behring's Sea from Asia or were driven by sea upon the coasts of America.

Name.—Columbus called the people of the new lands, Indians, because he supposed that the land he had reached was an outlying portion of India.

Number.—It is estimated that about 200,000 Indians were living east of the Mississippi river when the early discoverers came to America.

General appearance.—The Indians were generally tall, had red skins, high cheek bones, black hair and eyes, and little or no beard.

Other characteristics.—The Indians had a grave and haughty bearing, were brave in war, and had great power of endurance. They were an ingenious people, very hospitable, but cruel and revengeful, cunning and treacherous.

Manner of living.—The Indians lived in huts or wigwams and were nomadic (wandering about). The men spent their time in war, in hunting, and in fishing. The women did the work, planted the corn, cooked the food, made clothing out of skins, and, on their journeys, carried the burdens. Indians regarded women as inferior beings.

Government.—Each tribe of Indians was ruled by a chief. Important matters were settled by councils.

Religion.—The Indians believed in the Great Spirit and in many inferior spirits, some good and some evil. They believed in a future life which they expected to pass in "Happy Hunting Grounds". Some wor-

shipped their dead ancestors; others worshipped the sun, moon, stars, fire, or water.

Weapons.—Indian weapons were bows and arrows, hatchets of stone, and scalping-knives of bone. After the Europeans came to America, the Indians procured knives and hatchets of iron.

Money.—Indian money was wampum, or strings of shells. (After the Europeans came, they sometimes used strings of beads instead of shells.)

They had no domestic animals except the dog.

PRINCIPAL DIVISIONS

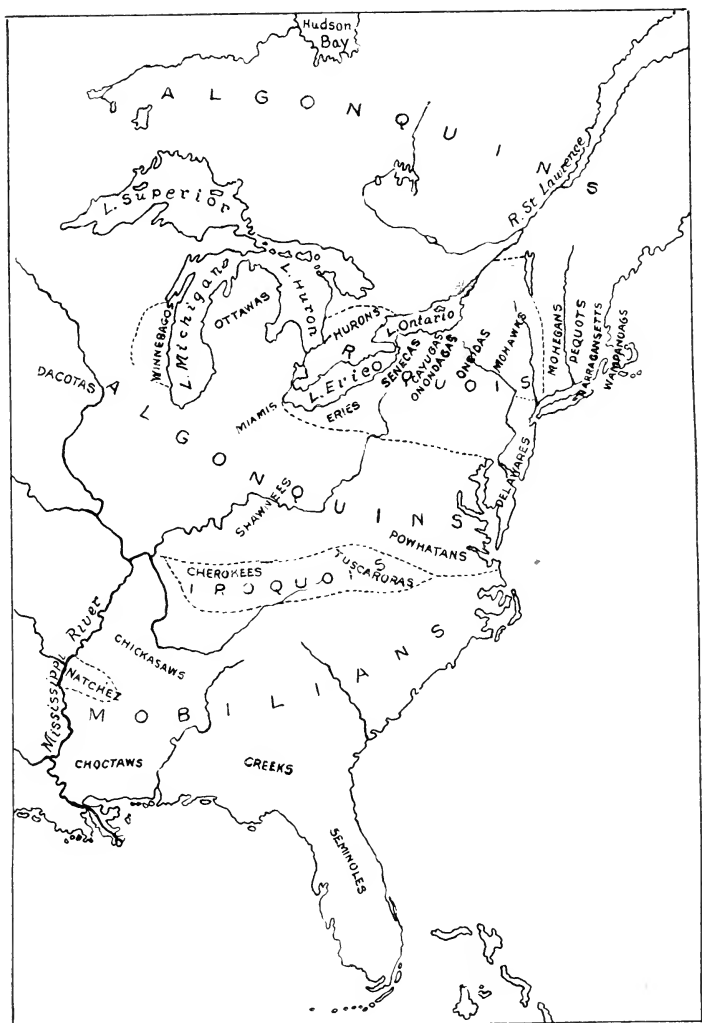
I. The Algonquins occupying the eastern part of the country, included the Wampanoags, Pequods, Narragansetts, Powhatan Confederacy, and other tribes.

II. The Wyandots, located near lakes Erie and Ontario, included the Eries, Hurons, and Iroquois. The Iroquois, called the “Five Nations of New York”, included the Senecas, Cayugas, Onondagas, Oneidas, and Mohawks. Later, the Tuscaroras came from the South (what is now called North Carolina) and joined them. Thereafter they were called the “Six Nations of New York”.

III. The Mobilians occupied the Southern part of what is now the United States. The Creeks and Seminoles were Mobilians.

IV. The Cherokees occupied the section between the Algonquins and Mobilians.

V. The Dakotahs, or Sioux, lived west of the Mississippi.



DISTRIBUTION OF THE INDIANS. From Prentices's History of New York

THE REVIVAL OF LEARNING IN THE 15TH CENTURY

Marco Polo, the great traveller of the thirteenth century, made an overland journey to Central and Eastern Asia where he spent about thirty years. Upon his return to Europe, he wrote books in which he described the countries that he had visited and told marvellous tales of the power and wealth of the Great Khan of Tartary, in whose service he had passed seventeen years.

The invention of printing enabled many people to own books, and to read the works of Marco Polo and other travellers who had written about the countries of Asia. An increased desire for knowledge began to be felt by the nations of Europe.

Early in the fifteenth century, the compass, the astrolabe, gunpowder, and other important inventions came into practical use, each in its own way helping on the progress of learning.

OLD ROUTES BETWEEN EUROPE AND THE EAST

Genoa and Venice were the great commercial cities of Europe for many years before the time of Columbus. Each city had its own route to the East. Genoa sent ships to Constantinople and ports on the Black Sea, receiving at those points goods which had been brought by caravan from the East. Venice used the southern route, sending ships to Alexandria which received there goods sent by way of the Red Sea and the Isthmus of Suez.

The Turks captured Constantinople in 1453. This seriously interfered with the great trade of Genoa. As

the power of the Turks increased, the people of Venice also began to fear for their trade with the East.

About this time the Portuguese became very active in maritime affairs, sending several expeditions down the western coast of Africa. Diaz, in 1487, sailed around the Cape of Good Hope into the Indian Ocean. Vasco da Gama, in 1497-8, reached India by way of the Cape of Good Hope. This new route made a long voyage of twelve thousand miles between European markets and the East.

To find a shorter and cheaper route to India now became the great problem of maritime nations.

COLUMBUS

Parentage.—Columbus was born in Genoa about 1435. His father was a poor wool-comber. Columbus was the eldest of four children.

Education.—For one of his birth and station at that time, he had good opportunities. He was sent to the University of Pavia. He learned Latin, wrote a good hand, and could draw maps. He studied mathematics, geography, and astronomy. When fourteen years old he went to sea.

Voyages before 1492.—Before he made his great voyage of discovery, Columbus had sailed a great deal on the Mediterranean Sea, had gone some distance down the coast of Africa, visiting Guinea and the Azores, and had visited England and Iceland. He was a very skilful navigator.

Marriage.—Columbus married the daughter of a renowned Portuguese navigator, governor of one of the Madeira Islands. From his father-in-law, he obtained valuable maps and charts.

Courts visited.—Columbus was too poor to fit out his own expedition. He first tried to get help at Genoa, his own city. Failing to interest his own countrymen, he went to King John of Portugal. The court ridiculed his ideas, but the king was wise enough to understand the plan of Columbus and secretly sent out an expedition, dishonestly using the charts of Columbus. This expedition was a failure. When Columbus learned how he had been cheated by King

John, he went to Ferdinand and Isabella, king and queen of Spain. Spain was then at war with the Moors, and Columbus waited seven years, trying to get ships and sailors to carry out his plans. At last, as he was about to turn to France, assistance was given him by Spain.

Motives.—He wished to prove his theories, he wished to find a better route to India, and he wished to engage in trade with the East. Being a devout Catholic, he desired to act as a missionary. If successful, he was promised power, wealth, and office.

Beliefs.—Columbus believed the earth to be round—not flat, as many then supposed it to be. He believed that by sailing westward he would reach Asia. He believed the earth to be much smaller than it really is. He did not know the existence of another continent, but thought that he could reach Asia by sailing westward for two or three thousand miles.

First voyage.—He had three ships, *Pinta*, *Nina*, and *Santa María*, with a hundred and twenty men. On Friday, August 3, 1492, he sailed from Palos, Spain. He stopped at the Canaries to repair one of the vessels, and then sailed westward. At first all went well. Then the variation of the compass was noticed. Not even Columbus understood this phenomenon. When they came into the track of the trade winds the men were still more alarmed. Many times Columbus was urged to turn back, and the crew were almost mutinous. On October 7, a flock of birds was seen flying southwest and the vessels changed their course, following the birds. At last, on Friday, October 12, they saw land. They had reached San

Salvador (Holy Redeemer), one of the Bahama Islands. Columbus landed and took possession in the name of Ferdinand and Isabella.

Subsequent voyages.—His second voyage was to Hayti and other West India Islands in 1493; his third was to the mainland of South America, near the mouth of the Orinoco, in 1498; and his fourth was to Central America and the Isthmus of Darien in 1502.

Last years.—The Spanish, disappointed because Columbus had not found gold and spices, made a great outcry against him. His health failed, and, broken-hearted, he died at Valladolid, Spain, in 1506, in neglect and poverty.

Misfortunes.—In youth, his poverty was a great drawback, and his old age was spent in obscurity. He was not a wise governor in the new lands. In 1502, he was sent home in chains, but was at once set free by the king. His last voyage was unfortunate, and he received but little attention after it.

Characteristics.—He was a great thinker and very religious. He was resolute and brave, for he dared to cross an unknown sea. He was persevering and energetic in holding to his beliefs and in his efforts to get assistance.

Results of his work.—He proved his theories to be correct, discovered a new world, led other nations to send out expeditions, and awakened the people of Europe to new thought and interest in navigation, astronomy, and education.

Naming of America.—Amerigo Vespucci, an Italian, visited this country after Columbus and wrote accounts of his travels. Waldsee Müller, a German

professor who read these accounts, suggested that the new country be called America in honor of Amerigo Vespucci.

OTHER SPANISH EXPLORERS

Ponce de Leon was an old man and in disgrace. He had heard of a fountain of youth and set out from Porto Rico to find it. On Easter Sunday, in 1512, he landed on the eastern coast of Florida, so named by him because it was covered with flowers and because he had discovered it on Easter Sunday (in Spanish, *Pascua Florida*). He found neither gold nor the fountain. Some years afterward, he tried to colonize Florida but did not succeed.

Balboa from a mountain on the Isthmus of Panama discovered the Pacific Ocean, in 1513.

Magellan sailed through the Strait of Magellan and across the Pacific, thus making the first circumnavigation of the globe (1520-22). He started from Spain with five ships. After crossing the Atlantic, he lost one ship, and, when he entered the Strait another ship turned back. At the Philippine Islands, Magellan was killed by savages. Only one of his ships, with 18 men, succeeded in getting around the world. Magellan was a Portuguese in the service of Spain.

Cortez conquered Mexico.

De Soto with nearly a thousand men landed at Tampa Bay in 1539, and set out to explore the country. He travelled through what is now Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi. He reached the Mississippi river in 1541. The next year, he died and was buried by night in the river which he had discovered. Half his men perished. The remainder returned to the Spanish settlements in Mexico.

Coronado explored New Mexico and Arizona in 1540. He discovered the cañon of the Colorado.

Cabrillo was the first man to sail along the Pacific coast (1542).

Menendez founded St. Augustine, the oldest town in the United States, in 1565. He then went to the Huguenot fort on the St. John's river in Florida and massacred all the men but saved the women and children.

Espejo founded Santa Fe in 1582. This is the second oldest town in the United States.

PORTUGUESE EXPLORERS

As early as 1487, Diaz had sailed around the Cape of Good Hope and a short distance into the Indian Ocean. In 1497, Vasco da Gama reached India by way of the Cape of Good Hope and the Indian Ocean. In 1500, Cabral discovered Brazil.

FRENCH EXPLORERS

Verrazano, an Italian in the service of France, is said to have explored the Atlantic coast of America from Newfoundland to Carolina in 1524. He named it New France.



GIOVINNI DA VERRAZANO. 1480-1527

Cartier, in 1535, discovered the St. Lawrence river and sailed up as far as the Indian village of Hochelaga, which he named Montreal.

Champlain explored the

St. Lawrence river early in the 17th century. In 1605, with De Monts, he founded Port Royal, Nova Scotia, which was afterwards destroyed by the English. In 1608, he founded Quebec, the oldest permanent French settlement in Canada. He was governor of Canada till his death in 1635. He joined a war party of Hurons against the Iroquois, or Five Nations of New York, and ever afterwards the Iroquois hated the French. While on this march in 1609 he discovered Lake Champlain and went inland as far as Lakes Ontario and Huron.



SAMUEL DE CHAMPLAIN, 1567-1635

THE HUGUENOTS, OR FRENCH PROTESTANTS

Coligny, an admiral in the French navy, was the leader and patron of the Huguenots in France. He formed a plan to make Huguenot settlements in America. He sent out two expeditions.

First expedition.—In 1562, John Ribaut brought the first Huguenot expedition to America. They landed at Port Royal, South Carolina, where he left thirty colonists. Soon food became scarce, they grew homesick, built a ship, and started to return to France. They were shipwrecked, rescued by an English vessel, and carried captive to England. England and France were then at war. Many years afterward, when South Carolina had been settled as an English colony, thousands of Huguenots, persecuted in France, emigrated

to the same place. Their descendants have been among the most honorable of American citizens.

Second expedition.—Coligny's second expedition, under the command of Landonniere in 1564, landed in Florida on the St. John's river and built a fort called Carolina. The colonists suffered for food but Ribaut brought re-inforcements, and they then seemed well established. But the fort was on land claimed by the Spanish. The King of Spain sent Menendez to drive off the Huguenots. He founded St. Augustine, twenty miles further south, and then marched to the St. John's river, surprised the French, and massacred the Huguenots who had made a settlement there.

De Gourgues.—The king of France took no notice of the massacre of the Huguenots, but De Gourgues, a French Catholic, vowed vengeance for the death of his countrymen. He fitted out an expedition at his own expense and sailed for Florida. He surprised the Spanish garrison which Menendez had left in the French fort, took them prisoners, and hung them, "not as Spaniards, but as assassins," and then returned to France.

THE FRENCH IN THE WEST

The Jesuit missionaries.—The first explorers of "the West" were missionaries belonging to the order of Jesuits in the Roman Catholic church. They explored the Great Lakes and the Mississippi and Ohio valleys. Throughout these sections, many places are still called by names given them by these Jesuit missionaries. They wished to convert the Indians to the Catholic faith. They showed most wonderful energy and perseverance and endured the greatest hardships.

Marquette explored in 1673 the northern part of the Mississippi Valley and sailed down the Mississippi river as far as the mouth of the Arkansas.

Joliet was a famous French explorer and fur-trader who accompanied Father Marquette.

La Salle, six years later, continued the exploration of the Mississippi and succeeded in reaching the Gulf of Mexico. He named the country Louisiana in honor of Louis XIV of France.

Hennepin was a Catholic missionary in La Salle's expedition. He explored the upper Mississippi and discovered the falls of St. Anthony.

ENGLISH EXPLORERS

John Cabot, an Italian, was living in Bristol, England, when Columbus made his first voyage to America. He got permission from King Henry VII. to sail at the expense of some English merchants, and in 1497 started with one ship and eighteen men. He thought that if the earth were round he could make a shorter journey to India by sailing northwest instead of west, as Columbus had done.

On this voyage, he discovered the mainland of North America at Labrador. The next year he explored the coast of America from Labrador to Carolina. It is probable that his son, Sebastian, accompanied him on both voyages. As the Cabots did not find the riches of Asia, the English seemed to lose their interest in western



SEBASTIAN CABOT, 1477-1557

voyages, for they sent no more explorers to America during the next seventy years.

On account of the discoveries of the Cabots, the English afterwards claimed the eastern coast of America and land lying westward indefinitely.

Frobisher made the first attempt to get to Asia by going north of America, following Cabot's idea. He sailed as far north as Baffin's Bay in 1576 and claimed it for England.



SIR FRANCIS DRAKE, 1540?-1596

Sir Francis Drake was a great sailor. He sailed through the Strait of Magellan and explored the Pacific coast as far as the southern part of Oregon. He landed at several places, refitted his ships near what is now San Francisco, took possession of the whole coast for England, and named it New Albion. (England is sometimes called Albion.) He then crossed the Pacific, returning home by way of the Cape of Good Hope, thus making the second voyage around the world (1579).

Sir Humphrey Gilbert thought that the English should make colonies in America instead of sending expeditions after gold and spices. He planned to found a colony in Newfoundland. He was lost at sea.

Sir Walter Raleigh shared the opinion of his half-brother, Gilbert. He



QUEEN ELIZABETH, 1533-1603
REIGNED, 1558-1603

He planned to found an English colonial empire in the New World and obtained a charter from Queen Elizabeth giving him the right to explore and settle the eastern coast of America. He was to be governor with full power to make laws for the colony.

Raleigh's first expedition.—In 1584, Raleigh sent two ships across the Atlantic on an exploring expedition. They landed on Roanoke Island where they spent some time. Upon their return to England, they carried back so good a report that the Queen named the land Virginia and made Raleigh a knight.

Raleigh's second expedition.—In the summer of 1585, Raleigh sent out a hundred and eight emigrants, all men, under Ralph Lane, as deputy governor. They established themselves on Roanoke Island. The men were not well chosen and would not work. Instead of building homes and cultivating the soil, they spent their time hunting for gold. They also had trouble with the Indians. In less than a year they returned with Drake, who happened along on one of his exploring expeditions. They carried back with them the potato and tobacco, hitherto unknown in England.

Raleigh's third expedition.—In 1587, Raleigh sent out another colonizing expedition composed of men with wives and families. John White was deputy

governor. His grand-daughter, Virginia Dare, was the first child born in this country of European parents.

White went back to England for supplies but was detained there three years. (England and Spain were then at war.) When he returned to America, none of the colonists could be found, though repeated search was made. Raleigh spent two hundred thousand dollars on these colonies but failed to establish a permanent settlement; he therefore transferred his rights to other men.

Gosnold.—The early explorers followed the route of Columbus, but Gosnold, in 1602, made a voyage directly across the Atlantic, shortening the route by a thousand miles. He discovered and named Cape Cod and some of the neighboring islands. He made trading voyages, carrying home sassafras root and furs. Raleigh accused him of trespassing on his land and seized his cargo.

Pring crossed the Atlantic in 1603 and discovered several rivers and harbors in Maine.

In 1606 Raleigh transferred his American rights to



JAMES I., 1566-1625
REIGNED, 1603-1625

a number of merchants and capitalists, who received a charter from King James I., in 1606, and formed two companies for the purpose of colonizing America. One was located in London and was called the London Company. The other was located in Plymouth and was called the Plymouth Company.

The king divided the territory of Virginia and gave it to these companies. South Virginia, lying between the 34th and 38th parallels of latitude, was given to the London Company. North Virginia, lying between the 41st and 45th degrees of latitude, was given to the Plymouth Company. The intervening territory was open to settlement by either company provided that neither settled within a hundred miles of the other. This intervening territory embraced what is now Maryland, Delaware, New Jersey, and a small portion of New York.

DUTCH EXPLORATIONS

Henry Hudson, an English navigator in the service of the Dutch, entered the harbor of New York in 1609. Hoping to reach the Pacific Ocean, he sailed up the Hudson as far as Albany. On this discovery, the Dutch based their claim to the land between the Delaware river and Cape Cod. They named it New Netherlands.



HENRY HUDSON. 1550-1611

CLAIMS OF THE FOUR NATIONS

I. Spain claimed the West Indies, Florida, Mexico and New Mexico, as well as South America, basing her claim upon the discoveries of Columbus and his Spanish successors.

II. England claimed the Atlantic coast, and land to the westward indefinitely, basing her claim upon the discoveries of the Cabots.

III. France claimed Acadia, Canada, the Mississippi valley (New France), and the basin of the Great Lakes, basing her claim upon the discoveries and explorations of Cartier, Champlain, La Salle and others.

IV. The Dutch claimed New Netherlands, and the Atlantic coast from the Connecticut river to the Delaware, basing their claim upon the discoveries of Henry Hudson.

EARLIEST PERMANENT SETTLEMENTS

St. Augustine, settled by the Spanish in 1565.

Santa Fé, settled by the Spanish in 1582.

Port Royal, Nova Scotia, settled by the French in 1605.

Jamestown, settled by the English in 1607.

Quebec, settled by the French in 1608.

New York, settled by the Dutch in 1614.

SPANISH EXPLORERS

<i>Who?</i>	<i>When?</i>	<i>Where?</i>	<i>Why?</i>
Columbus	1492	San Salvador, the Bahama, Cuba, Hayti.	Seeking a shorter, cheaper, better, route to India.
	1493	Porto Rico, and other West India Islands.	
	1498	Mainland of South America, Orinoco river.	
	1502	Central America and Isthmus of Darien	
Ponce de Leon	1512	Florida.	Seeking the fountain of youth and the conquest of the country.
Balboa	1513	Pacific Ocean.	Searching for a new sea that he had heard about
Cortez	1521	(Conquered) Mexico	Seeking wealth and power
Magellan	1520-22	St of Magellan. Sailed around the world	Seeking a route to Asia through America.
Pizarro	1531-36	(Conquered) Peru	For wealth and power.
Coronado	1540	New Mexico and Arizona.	For conquest and gold.
DeSoto	1539-42	Gulf States and Mississippi river	Hunting for gold, and adventure
Cabrillo	1542	Sailed along the Pacific coast	Exploration.
Menendez	1565	St Augustine.	To destroy Huguenot settlement.
Espejo	1582	Santa Fé.	Spanish missions.

Most of the Spanish explorations were made within about fifty years after Columbus had discovered America. Yet in all that time no Spanish settlements were made within the boundaries of what is now the United States. The great desire of the Spanish was for conquest, adventure, and wealth without work. Spanish colonization in North America was a total failure. In

a hundred years they had established only two settlements, St. Augustine and Santa Fé, and a few missions in Arizona and New Mexico.

DUTCH EXPLORERS

<i>Who?</i>	<i>When?</i>	<i>Where?</i>	<i>Why?</i>
Henry Hudson	1609	Hudson river	To find a short route to Asia.
Adrain Block	1614	Connecticut river.	

PORTUGUESE EXPLORERS

<i>Who?</i>	<i>When?</i>	<i>Where?</i>
Dias	1496	Rounded Cape of Good Hope.
Da Gama	1497-8	Went to India by way of Cape of Good Hope.
Cabral	1500	Discovered Brazil.

FRENCH EXPLORERS

<i>Who?</i>	<i>When?</i>	<i>Where?</i>	<i>Why?</i>
Verrazano	1524	Atlantic coast.	Exploration.
Cartier	1535	St. Lawrence riv'r.	To make French colony, to establish Catholic religion in America
Ribaut	1562	Port Royal, South Carolina	For Huguenot settlement
Laudonniere	1564	St. John's river, Florida	For Huguenot colony.
De Monts	1605	Acadia, Port Royal, N. S.	Settlement.
Champlain	1608	Quebec.	Settlement.
Marquette	1673	Upper Mississippi.	Jesuit missionary.
Joliet	1673	(With Marquette).	(Jesuit) trader and explorer.
Hennepin	1680	Upper Mississippi, Falls of St. Anthony	Jesuit missionary.
La Salle	1682	Lower Mississippi to Gulf of Mexico.	Exploration and trade.

ENGLISH EXPLORERS

<i>Who?</i>	<i>When?</i>	<i>Where?</i>	<i>Why?</i>
John and Sebastian Cabot	1497-8	Newfoundland & Labrador to Cape Hatteras.	To find a northwest passage to Asia
Frobisher	1576	Seas and straits north of America.	To find a northwest passage to Asia
Drake	1579	Pacific coast to Oregon, then back to England by the Pacific; second circumnavigation of the world	Piratical expedition against Spanish settlements in South America.
Gilbert Raleigh	1583	Newfoundland	To establish a colony. One exploring and two colonizing expeditions.
	1584	Roanoke Island.	
	1585		
Davis	1587		
	1585	North of North America.	To find a northwest passage
Gosnold	1602	Cape Cod	Trading voyage.
Pring	1603	Coast from Maine to Rhode Island	Exploration

In 1497, Spain was the strongest naval power in Europe. She controlled the Netherlands. England was then a much weaker power. Hence the first English explorers to America sought those parts not claimed by Spain. The chief motive of the English was to find a western passage to Asia, north of America. In 1567 (the last part of the 16th century), the Netherlands revolted from Spain. England sided with the Netherlands. Thus Spain had to fight two nations.

A long war followed, during which the English destroyed the Invincible Armada, as Spain called its navy. This happened in 1588. From that time, England began to be a great naval power.

PERIOD II

COLONIES OR SETTLEMENTS

VIRGINIA, 1607

Virginia was settled by the English at Jamestown, in 1607, under the London Company.

Queen Elizabeth died in 1603 and was succeeded by James I. He divided Virginia into two parts, North Virginia and South Virginia. The northern part, between the 41st and 45th degrees of latitude, was given to the Plymouth Company. This company was not successful in making settlements.

The London Company had the southern part, between the 34th and the 38th degrees of latitude. These two companies received their charters in 1606 and attempted to make settlements the next year.

The object of the settlement of Virginia was financial profit. The people expected to find gold in America, and to return to England after getting a great fortune.

The first charter of the London Company contained the following provisions:

1. The people could not elect any officer of the government.

2. The king was to appoint a council in the colony to have charge of its local affairs (at first there were six councilors, later thirteen). This council chose its

own president, but was controlled by the council in London.

3. The king also appointed a council to reside in London and have general control of the affairs of the company. Both councils were subject to the will of the king.

4. The church of England was the established religion.

5. For the first five years no land should be given to any one, but every settler must bring the products of his labor to the company's warehouse, out of which he would receive whatever he needed for his living. No one was allowed to keep the fruits of his own toil.

6. The king was to receive one-fifth of all the gold and silver that might be found in the colonies.

7. The king guaranteed to the colonists and their descendants the same rights and privileges as if they had remained citizens in England.

8. The colonists were carefully to explore all rivers near them to see whether they could not find a short and easy way to the South Sea (Pacific) and to the East Indies.

By its first charter, Virginia extended one hundred miles inland and had a hundred miles of sea coast.

Characteristics of the early Virginia settlers.—There were 105 persons in the colony, half of whom were gentlemen by birth (younger sons of noblemen). They were poor, but not accustomed to labor.

The other half were tradesmen and mechanics, who on account of the hard times in England were out of employment.

All were eager to find gold and then return to England. Most of them were idle and improvident. They were all unwilling to work. There were no farmers and no women in the colony.

They arrived in April, and delayed planting until it was too late for a crop that year. Soon food became scarce, the Indians were unfriendly, and the people became sick because of the unhealthful climate and improper food and water. One half of them died within four months.

Government.—(1) Charter, (2) Royal Province.

COLONIAL FORMS OF GOVERNMENT

A voluntary association was a form of government in which the colonists, without the authority of the king, made and executed their own laws, as in the Pilgrim colony at Plymouth, Mass.

A charter government was that in which the king granted a charter directly to the colonists, and under its restrictions they governed themselves.

A proprietary government was that in which the colony was controlled by one or more persons to whom the territory had been sold or granted by the king.

A royal province was that form of government in which the colony was controlled by a governor appointed by the king and called a royal governor.

The second Virginia charter.—In 1609, Virginia received its second charter. Under the terms of this charter the council in Virginia was given up and the king appointed a governor in its place. The first governor was Lord Delaware, who, by the terms of the

charter, had entire control of the colony. The council in London remained as before. The second charter extended the limits of Virginia westward to the Pacific Ocean and 400 miles along the coast.

By the third charter, given in 1612, the governor continued to administer the local affairs of the colony and the council in London was given up, the stockholders being given power to regulate the affairs of the colony.

Virginia a royal province.—In 1624, James I. became jealous of the company and took away its charter. From that time until 1693, Virginia was a royal province, the king himself appointing the governor and council.

Religion.—The Church of England, Protestant Episcopal, was the established religion in Virginia.

Growth.—The growth of this colony was slow. Many came to Virginia, but their number was constantly diminished by disease and lack of food.

Early troubles.—Most of the settlers were not accustomed to work. They were idle and improvident, unfit in every way to colonize a new country. The climate was trying, the river water, which they drank, was unhealthful; and they were without proper food and shelter. Half the original number died within four months. The Indians were so troublesome that the colonists had to be always on their guard. They “lived in common”: tried having a common fund, from which each man drew what he needed. This made trouble, for the lazy fared as well as the industri-

ous. Only through the efforts of John Smith was the colony kept together.

The starving time.—The starving time occurred in Virginia in the winter of 1609–10. Smith, who had been the life of the colony, had been injured by an explosion of gunpowder, and was obliged to return to England for surgical treatment. After his influence was removed the people became idle and disorderly. Many died of sickness caused by lack of food. In six months the colony was reduced from 490 to 60. The survivors were about to return to England when Lord Delaware came as governor bringing supplies and more emigrants.

The year 1619 is remarkable for three things: (1) the introduction of negro slavery into America, (2) the bringing of women to the colony to become wives of the settlers, (3) the meeting of the first legislative assembly in America.

Introduction of slavery.—Slavery was introduced into America by the Dutch in 1619, at Jamestown, Va. Twenty negroes were sold to the settlers to work on the tobacco plantations.

Coming of women.—In 1619, women were brought over to Virginia as wives for the planters. Each man had to gain the consent of the woman and pay 150 pounds of tobacco for her passage to Virginia. This was the beginning of home life in the colony and the people really became settlers.

The first legislative assembly.—By the summer of 1619 there were about 4,000 white settlers in Virginia. They had a local government, consisting of a

governor and council, but were not satisfied. These 4,000 settlers were living in 11 district boroughs or settlements (plantations). From each borough were sent to the meeting two representatives, or burgesses. These constituted the House of Burgesses. The legislative assembly consisted of Governor Yeardley and his council, both of whom were appointed by the London Company, and the House of Burgesses. This Virginia assembly met on July 30, 1619, in the little church at Jamestown. It was the first legislative body that ever met in America.

Though the laws passed by the assembly had to be ratified by the company in England, Virginia thus gained some civil freedom in the early times.

Prosperity in the Virginia colony.—While Lord Delaware was governor, the colony began to prosper on account of his good management. When Governor Dale came into power (1611) each man was given a plot of ground to cultivate for himself and the famine troubles never came back to Virginia. People began to cultivate tobacco and found it very profitable. At one time, it was planted even in the streets of Jamestown. When women came to the colony, homes were built, people stopped hunting for gold, and the success of the colony was secured. The cultivation of tobacco was begun in 1612 by John Rolfe. In 1616, the settlers were giving nearly all their time to its cultivation.

Indian troubles in Virginia, 1622 and 1644.—After the death of Powhatan, the Indians formed a plan to destroy the English colony (1622). They worked secretly and pretended to be friendly with the

white people. On March 22, 1622, while the men were working in the fields the Indians attacked the settlements, killing more than three hundred in one day. Jamestown and other settlements were saved by the warning of a friendly Indian. The settlers gathered together and made war upon the Indians, punishing them so severely that they remained quiet for twenty years. In 1644, the Indians again became hostile and killed five hundred or more of the white people. The trouble lasted about two years, when the settlers succeeded in driving the Indians out of the colony.

The navigation acts were laws passed by the British Parliament at various times (1631, 1651, 1660, 1663) which declared that all the commerce of the colonies should be carried on in ships owned and manned by Englishmen; that tobacco, and other products exported from the colonies, must be sent to England for sale; and that the imports of the colonies should be purchased in England. This was to make a market for English goods, to increase the commerce of England, and to give the English an opportunity to get rich at the expense of the colonies. The result was bitter feeling on the part of the colonists toward England.

The original purpose of the navigation acts was to prevent the Dutch from competing with England in commerce.

Bacon's rebellion occurred in Virginia in 1676. In that year, (which was also the year of King Philip's war in New England) the Indians suddenly made an

uprising in Virginia, burning settlements and killing the white people. The colonists begged for help from the governor, who would do nothing for them. He had been a tyrannical governor and he knew that the people hated him. For that reason, he hesitated to give them arms lest they turn against him. Nathaniel Bacon, a rich planter, raised a company and defeated the Indians several times. Berkeley called Bacon and his followers rebels and marched against them, but was obliged to retreat. Bacon drove Berkeley out of Jamestown and burned the town. In the midst of his success, Bacon died and there was no one to take his place. Berkeley regained power and cruelly punished Bacon's followers. No immediate benefit to the colony followed Bacon's rebellion.

Reforms in Virginia.—For five years after its settlement the Virginia colony was far from prosperous. In 1611 Governor Dale gave each settler three acres of land to cultivate for himself. For the support of the colony, each man, at harvest time, contributed $2\frac{1}{2}$ barrels of corn.

After 1612, the cultivation of tobacco became the chief business of the people. This product was readily sold in England, and brought wealth and comfort to the planters. Large numbers of emigrants of the better class came to Virginia to engage in the profitable business of raising tobacco.

The establishment of the Virginia assembly, in 1619, gave the people a voice in making their own laws. Two years later, the colony was allowed a written constitution confirming their right to a legislative assembly.

From the time of Bacon's rebellion, there was a

growing spirit of independence, culminating, a hundred years later, in the Declaration of the Continental Congress in Philadelphia.

Jefferson, a Virginian, wrote the Declaration of Independence.

The college of William and Mary was founded at Williamsburg in 1693. It is the second oldest college in America.

John Smith, according to his own story, had many adventures before coming to America. He had been captured by Barbary pirates, left for dead on a battlefield in Hungry, had been sold into slavery, and had escaped.

In the Virginia colony, Smith seemed to be the most important and influential man. He was a member of the council and afterwards its president. He taught the unskilful men to build houses and cultivate the soil. He kept the colony together for two years until more emigrants arrived. He was called "The Father of Virginia". In 1614, he explored a part of the Atlantic coast and made a map of the country which he named New England.

Captain Christopher Newport had charge of the vessels which brought the colony to Virginia in 1607. For the return voyage, he loaded his ships with "fool's gold" (mica).

Lord Delaware.—After the "Starving Time" in 1609-10, the remainder of the settlers decided to return to England. Before they had gotten out of the James river, they met Lord Delaware coming with supplies and emigrants in three ships. He had been

appointed governor, a position he held for only two years, on account of poor health.

Governor Dale succeeded Lord Delaware and by strict and vigorous measures greatly improved the affairs of the colony. He gave each man a piece of land which he was to cultivate for his own use, thus abolishing the system of living in common.

Sir William Berkeley was appointed royal governor of Virginia, in 1642, by Charles I. Later Cromwell allowed the House of Burgesses to elect their own governor. When Charles II. came to the throne of England he re-appointed Berkeley. He was tyrannical and kept the power in his own hands by adjourning the legislature from year to year, thus preventing general elections by the people. The "Perpetual legislature" lasted thirteen years.

Nathaniel Bacon, a young planter, was a man of wealth and influence. He was a member of the Virginia council. In 1676 he raised a rebellion against Governor Berkeley.

Powhatan, an Indian chief in Virginia, one of the Algonquins, was friendly to the whites.

Pocahontas was an Indian princess, daughter of Powhatan. She was baptized in the church at Jamestown and married John Rolfe, an enterprising planter. They visited England and were received at Court. She was called Lady Rebecca. She died on her way back to America, leaving an infant son from whom are descended many leading aristocratic families in Virginia.

THE NAVIGATION ACTS

1631.—(Charles I.) Tobacco must be shipped to England only.

1651.—(Commonwealth.) All commerce between England and her colonies, and between England or her colonies and other parts of the world, must be carried on in ships owned and manned by Englishmen, except that other nations might bring their products in their own ships.

1660.—(Charles II.) Colonial exports must be sent to England.

1663.—(Charles II.) Colonial imports must come from England.

Results : (1) A war with Holland which decided the naval supremacy of England; (2) the hostility of the American colonies to England; (3) the enrichment of England by the colonial trade.

NEW YORK.—DUTCH

1614.—In 1609, Henry Hudson, an English navigator in the service of Holland, while seeking a north-west passage to the Indies, discovered the Hudson river and sailed up as far as the place where Albany now stands. This gave the Dutch a claim to the land.

In 1614, Holland took possession of the country and named it New Netherlands. Two forts were built, one at New Amsterdam (New York) and the other at Fort Orange (Albany). This was the only colony planted by the Dutch in America.

The patroon system.—About the time the Pilgrims came to America, the Dutch West India Company obtained a patent for the territory between the Delaware and Connecticut rivers. To every one who would bring 50 settlers to the country in the course of four years, was offered a tract of land having 16 miles of water-front on the Hudson and extending back from the river as far as he could use. The proprietors were called patroons, or lords of the manor. They were to buy the land of the ^{the}Indians, and their heirs were to hold it forever. Each patroon agreed (1) to pay each emigrant's expenses in coming to America; (2) to stock his farm with tools and cattle at small rent and free from taxes; (3) to provide a schoolmaster and a minister.

The emigrant agreed (1) to cultivate the patroon's land for ten years, and not to leave it without permis-

sion; (2) to give the patroon the first opportunity to buy the produce he might have to sell; (3) to bring all disputes about property rights to the patroon's court.

The object of the settlement was to carry on trade in furs with the Indians, and later to colonize the country.

Settlers.—The colony contained a great many English, French, and Belgians, even while it belonged to the Dutch. It is said that as many as 18 languages were spoken in New Amsterdam.

Government.—Under the Dutch, the Commercial Association constituted the government. Under the English, the government was at first proprietary and later a royal province.

Religion.—The established religion was the Dutch Reformed church.

Growth.—The growth of the colony was slow but steady.

Purchase of Manhattan Island.—Peter Minuit was the first Dutch governor of New Netherlands. He bought Manhattan Island, (fourteen thousand acres) of the Indians, paying them twenty-four dollars in beads, ribbons, and trinkets.

Walter Van Twiller was the second Dutch governor of New Netherlands. In the ship that brought him over, came Mr. Bogardus, the minister, and Mr. Rollandsen, the first schoolmaster of the colony. Van Twiller was a weak man and a poor governor.

William Kieft, the third Dutch governor of New Netherlands, was also a poor governor, very arbitrary, and in constant trouble with the Indians. In two

years, sixteen hundred Indians were killed in the colony. While he was governor the scattered white settlements were destroyed. The colonists finally sent him home.

Peter Stuyvesant, the last and best of the Dutch governors of New Netherlands, ruled the colony from 1645 to 1664. He was arbitrary and hot-tempered, but honest and determined. Under his rather severe management, the wealth and population of the colony were more than doubled.



PETER STUYVESANT, 1602-1682

Conquest of New Sweden.—A company of Swedes settled on the western bank of the Delaware river in 1638 and called the country New Sweden. It was the beginning of the State of Delaware. The Dutch had already built a fort there and claimed the land. In 1654, Peter Stuyvesant marched against the intruders, conquered them, and annexed their colony to New Netherlands.

Trouble with the English.—The English settled on the Connecticut river and there was constant trouble about boundaries. Stuyvesant settled the difficulty by fixing the boundary between New York and Connecticut nearly as it is now.

New Netherlands conquered by the English (1664). The English coveted New Netherlands because it was an important military position and a convenient centre for the fur-trade. If the Dutch held New Netherlands, the New England colonies would be

separated from the southern colonies, thus weakening the power of the English. England claimed all the Atlantic coast on account of the discoveries of the Cabots. In 1664, Charles II. fitted out a fleet and sent



CHARLES II., 1630-1685
REIGNED, 1661-1685

it to New Amsterdam to demand the surrender of the colony. Stuyvesant resisted, but, having only two hundred and fifty soldiers to defend the colony against the English, he was forced to surrender. After capturing New Netherlands, the English kept it for nine years.

In 1673, during a war between England and Holland, the Dutch got possession of the colony again, but peace between the two countries being made the next year, New York was given back to the English by treaty. From that time until the Revolution, it remained in the hands of the English.

The negro plot.—In 1741, there were several fires and one or two houses were robbed in New York city. It was said that the slaves in the city had formed a plan to unite and overpower the whites. This caused great excitement. Slaves were urged to give information of the plot and were promised their freedom for so doing. For the sake of gaining freedom several confessed and charged others with having been engaged in the conspiracy. More than a hundred were convicted. A few white men and eighteen negroes were hanged and many others were sent to the West Indies to be sold. After the excitement had passed people believed that no plot had existed.

King's college.—King's college, now Columbia university, was founded in New York city in 1754.

Cornelius May was in command of the first colony under the Dutch West India Company in 1624. Cape May was named after him.

Sir Edmund Andros was royal governor of New England and New York. He stayed in Boston and left the government of New York to the deputy-governor, Nicholson.



SIR EDMUND ANDROS, 1637-1714

Nicholson out of the colony and took the government into his own hands. Later he grew very arbitrary and imprisoned citizens who opposed him. When Governor Sloughter, who had been appointed by William and Mary, came to the colony, Leisler turned the government over to him. During his administration Leisler had made many enemies and they succeeded in having him arrested and condemned to death.

Captain Kidd was a bold and skilful sailor, living in New York. King William wanted to put a stop to piracy, which was then very common on all seas. Captain Kidd was placed in command of a ship and sent out to hunt down pirates, being promised a large share in the prizes he might secure. Instead of bringing the captured ships to the authorities, he became a pirate himself. Some time after, he dared to appear

in Boston, where he was captured and sent to England for trial. He was condemned and hanged for piracy. It has been said that he buried treasures on the coast of Long Island or on the banks of the Hudson. Many adventurers have searched at various points to find these treasures, but without success.

Lord Bellomont, who made great efforts to suppress piracy, was governor of New York late in the 17th century.

The Dongan Charter.—Through the efforts of Governor Dongan, in 1683, the Duke of York gave the colony a charter giving the people (1) a right to vote, (2) trial by jury, (3) taxation by the assembly, and (4) complete religious freedom.

Treaty with the Iroquois.—Governor Dongan made a treaty with the Iroquois, so that they never fought against the British in wars that followed. These Indians hated the French from the time of Champlain, who, in 1609, had invaded this section with a band of Hurons.

The Zenger trial.—The first newspaper in New York was published in 1725

by William Bradford. He did the public printing for fifty years. Naturally, this paper would not criticise the administration of the government. Cosby, the unscrupulous governor, was defeated in a law-suit. He removed the judge and ap-



WILLIAM BRADFORD, 1663-1752.

pointed another in his place. The people of New York were indignant at this action, believing that they could not secure justice from the courts which were in the power of the governor. Bradford's paper supported the governor, but Peter Zenger started an opposition paper devoted to the cause of the people. This new paper was filled with criticisms and rhymes about the governor. The paper was seized and Zenger was arrested for libel. He edited his paper in his cell and secured lawyers to defend his case. Cosby deprived these lawyers of the rights of attorney. Zenger then hired a lawyer from Philadelphia. His plea was that this was the cause of the people, a question of the freedom of the press, against the will of a dictator. The jury brought in a verdict of "not guilty". This decision established the freedom of the press, which has ever since been an important aid in securing the rights of American citizens.

NEW JERSEY

DUTCH TRADING POST AT BERGEN IN 1617.—ENGLISH AT ELIZABETHTOWN IN 1664

After the Dutch settled on Manhattan Island they crossed the river and built a fort at Bergen (1617), and another on the Delaware river where Philadelphia stands (1623). They claimed all this section as a part of New Netherlands.

The English, denying the claims of the Dutch, insisted that the discoveries of the Cabots gave them the right to the whole coast as far as Florida. When Charles II., in 1664, gave New York to his brother, the Duke of York, he included this region in the gift. The Duke sold Lord Berkeley and Sir George Cartaret the land between the Hudson and Delaware rivers.



JAMES DUKE OF YORK, 1633-1701
REIGNED AS JAMES II., 1685-1688

New Jersey received its name from the island of Jersey in the English channel where Cartaret had been governor before receiving this grant. Cartaret had been a loyal friend to the Duke's father, Charles I.

Philip Cartaret, nephew of Sir George, brought a company of emigrants to New Jersey and made a

settlement in the eastern part, at Elizabethtown, in 1665. All people were allowed religious freedom and a part in making the laws; therefore many desirable emigrants came to New Jersey to live. In 1676, the province was divided into East and West Jersey; and the western part, Berkeley's share, was bought by some Quakers. Later William Penn and other Quakers bought East Jersey. There was a great deal of trouble about titles to the lands, owing to the number of proprietors. In 1702, the two provinces were put into the hands of the English government and for a while were united with New York, although New Jersey still had its own assembly. In 1738, New Jersey became a separate royal province and so remained till the revolution. Benjamin Franklin's son was the last royal governor of New Jersey.

Princeton college, at Princeton, N. J., was founded in 1746.

MASSACHUSETTS.—ENGLISH

(a) Plymouth Colony, Pilgrims, Plymouth, 1620.

(b) Massachusetts Bay Colony, { Salem, 1628.
Puritans, { Boston, 1630.

James I. was determined to have every one conform to the church of England. Many did not like its ceremonies. One class, called Puritans, desired to remain in the church but wished to purify and reform it. Another class, called Separatists, objected to the ceremonies of the church and to its government by bishops. They wished to form a church of their own wherein the people themselves should rule.

Being persecuted in England, they went to Holland in 1608, where they were allowed religious freedom. More emigrants followed until they numbered a thousand or more. As they were well treated, they remained in Holland twelve years.

Not wishing their children to grow up in a land where they would lose English speech and customs, they decided to come to America. They called themselves Pilgrims on account of their wanderings. King James would not give them a charter, but allowed them to come to America.

In July, 1620, they left Holland in the *Speedwell*, going to Southampton, where they joined the *Mayflower*. Both ships started, but had to put back on account of the leaking condition of the *Speedwell*.

Finally the Mayflower sailed alone Sept. 16, 1620. The weather was stormy and they did not reach America until November 21. They explored the coast for a while and landed December 21, at Plymouth, Massachusetts.

Characteristics of the Pilgrims.—Nearly all of the Pilgrims were English yeomen, poor, but industrious. They were men of earnest purpose and very religious.

The growth of the colony was slow. In 1620, 102 came to America. At the end of ten years, they numbered only 300. After 1630, their number increased rapidly.

The early sufferings of the Plymouth colony were great. They arrived in December, and found the climate more severe than that to which they had been accustomed. There was great scarcity of food followed by sickness. During the first winter half of their number died. Yet when spring came none of them thought of returning to England.

The government was a voluntary association (see page 34) until 1692, when Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay colonies were united under a charter government. The Pilgrims, before landing, signed a compact in the cabin of the Mayflower by which they agreed to make and support just and equal laws. John Carver was chosen governor. The laws were made in town-meetings where every man could freely express his opinions and cast his vote.

John Carver was one of the Pilgrims on the Mayflower. Before the landing he was chosen governor. He died during the first winter in America.

William Bradford was chosen governor of Plymouth colony when John Carver died. He held the office thirty-one years. He made a treaty with Massasoit which was faithfully kept for more than fifty years.



WILLIAM BRADFORD. 1590-1657

man in the colony.

Captain Miles Standish was the military commander at Plymouth. He and his men defended the settlement against the Indians.

Massasoit was an Indian chief of the Wampanoag tribe who made a treaty with Governor Bradford, which was faithfully kept until King Philip's time.

MASSACHUSETTS BAY COLONY

John Endicott settled at Salem, in 1628, and John Winthrop at Boston, in 1630. These people were Puritans, who belonged to the church of England, but they did not like some of the forms and ceremonies of that church. They bought of the Plymouth Company land between the Charles and the Merrimac rivers, obtained a charter from Charles I., and were called the Massachusetts Bay Colony. Their first object was to make a place of refuge for the Puritans who were persecuted in England. Many were engaged in the fisheries. Endicott was deputy-governor at Salem until Winthrop came to the colony.

Characteristics.—The people were sober-minded, industrious, very religious, and plain in speech and dress. Many of them were men of wealth and influence, and highly educated.

Government.—The government was (1) charter government, (2) a royal province, and (3) charter government. Only members of the Puritan church were allowed to vote.

Settlement at Boston.—John Winthrop, with horses and cattle and nearly a thousand emigrants, came to Boston in 1630. He was a man of influence, a wise leader, the royal founder of Massachusetts Bay Colony, and its first governor. He held this office almost continuously until his death in 1659. He dressed plainly and was not ashamed to do manual labor. He had a son, John, who was afterwards governor of Connecticut Colony.

Roger Williams, one of the noble men of his times, was pastor of the church in Salem in 1633. He (1) advocated the entire separation of church and state; (2) declared that no man should be obliged to pay taxes to support a minister; (3) that civil officers had no right to punish sabbath-breaking or blasphemy; and (4) that people were responsible for their opinions only to God and to their own consciences. (5) He also said that the king of England could not rightfully give the land in America to the settlers, because it belonged to the Indians.

The magistrates and clergymen could not endure such opinions and banished him from the colony. Instead of returning to England he went to the Indians

and lived with them all winter. They gave him a large tract of land.

Mrs. Anne Hutchinson held opinions like those of Roger Williams. She called meetings where she preached every week, criticising the clergymen for their religious faith and practices. The General Court ordered her to be banished. With her husband and some friends, she made a settlement in Rhode Island.

Persecution of Quakers.—A company of people called Quakers came to Boston, not to escape persecution, but to preach the doctrines in which they believed. Later they were persecuted in England. (1) They would not give testimony under oath in court, (2) nor swear to support the government. (3) They would not pay taxes to support any form of public worship. (4) They would not do any military service, nor bear arms, even in self-defence. Quakers stood in direct opposition to the views commonly held by people of those days. The Church of England found the standard of righteousness in the teachings of the church, Puritans found it in the Bible, but Quakers believed it was in their own hearts. They were banished from Massachusetts under penalty of death. Some were put into prison, some were whipped, and four were hanged. Many Quakers went to Rhode Island.

Harvard university was named after the Rev. John Harvard, who bequeathed his books and half his estate to the new college founded in 1636 by the General Court, or legislature, in Boston. It was located in Newtown, now Cambridge, and is the oldest college in America.

Union of New England colonies.—In 1643, Massachusetts Bay, Plymouth, New Haven, and Connecticut colonies formed a union for their common protection against the Indians, and against the encroachments of the French and Dutch settlers. At this time, these colonies contained about 20,000 settlers and there were 50 villages. This union was made just after the Pequod war. Each colony reserved the right to attend to its own local affairs. (This was the beginning of the doctrine of State rights.) The union was a confederacy of states, like the first American government. The general affairs of the confederacy were managed by a board of eight commissioners, two church-members from each colony, who met as often as necessary. They had no executive powers, but could recommend measures which were afterwards acted upon by the several colonies, each being independent. The name of this confederacy was "The United Colonies of New England". It lasted for more than forty years. (1664-1686.)

King Philip's war occurred in 1675 and 1676 in New England (in Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut). During the life of Massasoit the Indians were at peace with the white people. "King Philip", the son of Massasoit, felt bitter over the prosperity and increasing power of the colonists. He planned to have all the New England tribes unite for the destruction of the white people, lest they take away all the lands of the Indians. They attacked many places in southern and western Massachusetts, beginning at Swanzy, in the summer of 1675. They

destroyed many places in the Connecticut valley and carried the war almost to Boston. At last the Indians were hunted down and Philip was chased from one hiding-place to another until he was killed by a faithless Indian at Mt. Hope. His death closed the war, which had lasted about a year.

Salem witchcraft, 1692.—The belief prevailed that people could be possessed of the devil, and that such persons could exercise a bad influence over the bodies of others. People so possessed were called “witches”. The others were their helpless victims. Many people in various parts of Europe were put to death because they were believed to be witches. Two children of Mr. Parris, the minister at Salem, acted strangely. An old woman, being whipped, confessed that she had bewitched them. Several others were said to be bewitched and there was great excitement. Many were imprisoned, and twenty were hanged on a hill now known as “Gallows Hill”. Many more were tortured until they confessed themselves guilty. This strange delusion showed the superstitious character of the people. It was followed by a re-action when there was less intolerance in the colony.

Massachusetts a royal province.—Charles II., in 1684, took away the charter and made Massachusetts a royal province, the first royal governor being Sir Edmund Andros. He was exceedingly unjust and tyrannical, especially in Massachusetts. He was to Massachusetts what Berkeley had been to Virginia. A few years later, when, by the revolution of 1688, James II. was forced to flee from England, the Boston

people arrested Andros and sent him to England. For a short time they managed their own affairs. In 1692, William III. of England sent over a new charter making Massachusetts, Plymouth, and Maine one province. From this time all forms of religion, except the Roman Catholic, were tolerated, and there was greater civil freedom, but Massachusetts remained a royal province until the revolution.

The Rev. John Eliot, called the "Apostle to the Indians", believed that the red men were descendants of the lost tribes of Israel. He founded a settlement of "Praying Indians", and published a translation of the Bible into the Indian language. These "Praying Indians" often gave warning of intended Indian attacks and served the colonists as soldiers and guides in King Philip's war.

NEW HAMPSHIRE

1623.—In 1622, soon after the Plymouth colony had become established, Ferdinando Gorges and John Mason received a grant of land between the Kennebec and Merrimac rivers and extending westward to Lake Champlain. They named it Laconia. The first settlement was made at Little Harbor, near Portsmouth, in 1623.

The object of settlement was (1) to develop the fisheries of New England and (2) to carry on a fur-trade with the Indians.

The government was (1) proprietary; (2) charter (when united to Massachusetts); (3) a royal province.

Religion.—Mason and Gorges were of the Church of England. Later, religious exiles from Massachusetts settled at Exeter under the leadership of the Rev. John Wheelwright.

Divison of New Hampshire.—After seven years, the proprietors divided their land. Gorges took the part between the Piscataqua and the Kennebec rivers, calling it Maine; and Mason took the part between the Piscataqua and the Merrimac rivers, calling it New Hampshire.

Union with Massachusetts.—New Hampshire was several times united with Massachusetts Bay Colony for various reasons. It was not a strong colony; the small population was divided in regard to matters of

religion; and, by its position, it was exposed to Indian attacks. A final separation occurred in 1691, and from that time to the revolution it was a royal province.

Massachusetts claimed the territory of Maine and, in 1691, purchased it of the heirs of Gorges for \$6,000. It continued a part of Massachusetts until 1820, when it was admitted to the Union as the twenty-third State.

A later emigration.—When New Hampshire had been settled nearly a hundred years, many Scotch-Irish (Scotch Protestants who had settled in the northern part of Ireland) emigrated to this colony and settled at Londonderry. They introduced the manufacture of linen. Daniel Webster was a descendant of one of these families.

Dartmouth college was founded at Hanover, N. H., in 1769.

Vermont was not one of the thirteen original colonies. Both New York and New Hampshire claimed the land west of the Connecticut. It was known as "The New Hampshire Grants" because the governor of New Hampshire had divided it into townships for settlement. In 1765, King George decided that it should be given to New York, but those who had commenced settlements there were greatly dissatisfied. Early in the revolution, 1777, Vermont declared itself independent. After the war, when the Union of States had been completed, Vermont was the first new State to join the original thirteen.

CONNECTICUT.—ENGLISH

WINDSOR. 1633

First settlements.—In 1633, the Dutch built a fort on the Connecticut river where the city of Hartford now stands. The same year, a few men from Plymouth went to Windsor further up the river, and made a settlement. Both the Dutch and the English were anxious to control the fur-trade with the Indians.

Two years later many emigrants from England came to Massachusetts Bay. There were then eight large towns in the vicinity of Boston. The same year, people from Dorchester and Watertown settled at Windsor and Weathersfield.

John Winthrop, son of the Massachusetts governor, took a company of English emigrants to the mouth of the Connecticut river and there founded Saybrook. This made it impossible for the Dutch to hold their position at Hartford. Thus three English towns were planted in Connecticut in 1635.

In 1636, the Rev. Thomas Hooker with a hundred emigrants from Cambridge, founded a new colony at Hartford. These people went on foot and drove their cattle before them. For a time the Connecticut settlements were considered a part of Massachusetts Bay, but in 1639, Hartford, Windsor, and Weathersfield united under the name of Connecticut. They adopted a written constitution which gave all the people a right to vote.

The New Haven colony.—In 1638, while the trouble with the Pequods was still going on, John Davenport and a company of wealthy Englishmen from London established a colony at New Haven. They had no laws but those they found in the Bible.

Union of Connecticut colonies.—The Connecticut colony was formed out of the settlements of Hartford, Windsor, and Weathersfield in 1639. In 1644, the Connecticut colony purchased Saybrook and thus secured control of the lower part of the river. In 1662, New Haven and Connecticut were united under a liberal charter granted by Charles II., which was used as the State constitution until 1818, except the three years during which Andros was royal governor of New England. (1686–1689.)

Object of settlement.—(1) The colonists wished to control the fur-trade of that section. (2) They wished to cultivate the rich meadow-lands of the valley. (3) They wished to have greater civil freedom. The Puritans were aristocratic. They believed that the affairs of the colony should be managed by the wisest and best men in the colony, therefore they allowed only church-members to vote. Thomas Hooker and his friends were more democratic. In the Connecticut colony all men were allowed to vote.

The Pequod war, 1637.—All the Indians of New England belonged to the Algonquin family. In the valley of the Thames lived the Pequods, a bold and war-like tribe, who were very troublesome, especially in Connecticut. They made no open attacks, but skulked about and waylaid the white people, whom

they tortured and killed. Through the influence of Roger Williams, the Narragansetts were kept from joining them. In 1637, the white people determined to put a stop to these Indian attacks. Captain Mason, with 90 men from Connecticut, and Captain Underhill, with 20 men from Massachusetts, and some friendly Indians, marched against the Pequods, who were encamped in a stockade. The Indians were taken by surprise, and before they could rally the fort was set on fire and nearly all were destroyed. It is said that only five out of five hundred escaped. The remainder of the tribe, encamped at another place, was soon hunted down and killed.

Trouble with Governor Andros, 1687.—Charter Oak. After James II. became king, he appointed Sir Edmund Andros royal governor of New England and New York. The king ordered him to take away the charters of Rhode Island and Connecticut. Andros went to Hartford, where he met the legislature and demanded the charter. The matter was discussed until evening when lights were brought in. Suddenly the meeting found itself in darkness, and before the candles could be re-lighted the box containing the charter had disappeared. William Wadsworth had taken it and hidden it in a hollow tree, ever afterward known as the "Charter Oak". The colonists were obliged to give up their charter government and to acknowledge the authority of Andros. When the people of Boston arrested Andros and sent him to England, Connecticut resumed its charter government.

Yale university, founded in 1700, is located at New Haven, Conn.

MARYLAND.—ENGLISH

ST. MARY. 1634

Maryland was settled by Lord Baltimore, an English Roman Catholic.

The object was to provide a place of refuge for persecuted Roman Catholics. One form of persecution to which they were subjected was this: an English law imposed a heavy fine upon every Roman Catholic who refused to attend the Church of England. This law was not strictly enforced, but large sums of money were extorted from Catholics.

George Calvert, the first Lord Baltimore, was raised to the peerage by James I. He had been a personal friend of the king and his secretary of state. Lord Baltimore had tried to found a Roman Catholic colony on the island of Newfoundland, but the climate was so severe that he asked and obtained from the king a grant of land north of the Potomac river.

Proprietors. Liberal charters.—The king promised the land to the first Lord Baltimore, who died before receiving the grant. His son, Cecil Calvert, second Lord Baltimore, received the charter and was made “Lord Proprietary”, almost a king. He could call an assembly of representatives of the people, whose laws could be enforced as soon as he had signed them, the king’s assent not being required. He could coin money, establish courts, appoint judges, and pardon criminals. The Maryland charter also contained a provision denying the right of the English govern-

ment to tax these colonists. In token of his loyalty, Lord Baltimore was to send yearly to the king two Indian arrows and one-fifth of all the gold or silver he might find in the new colony. His office as Lord Proprietary was to be hereditary.

First settlement. The wigwam church.—The first colony, numbering about 20 gentlemen and 300 laborers, made a settlement at St. Mary's in 1654. It was led by Governor Leonard Calvert, brother of the second Lord Baltimore. Before building their houses the settlers bought land of the Indians, paying them with axes, hoes, and cloth. Almost without interruption, the Maryland colony had friendly relations with the Indians. Soon after their arrival, the Catholics got permission from an Indian chief to use his wigwam for a chapel, the first Roman Catholic church in America.

Political and religious freedom.—From the beginning Lord Baltimore allowed all the people of the colony to take a part in making the laws. Absolute religious freedom was given to all Christians. No other colony enjoyed such freedom, nor was it known in Europe at that time.

The toleration acts. Results.—The toleration acts were laws passed by the Maryland assembly, which gave all Christians liberty to worship God according to the dictates of their own consciences. Thus Maryland became a refuge for persecuted Christians from every section,—for Puritans from Virginia, and Quakers from Massachusetts, as well as Roman Catholics from England. People of all creeds were drawn to this colony and it increased rapidly in wealth and population.

Clayborne's rebellion.—The Virginia people were

greatly dissatisfied on account of the king's grant to Lord Baltimore, claiming that the land was a part of what had already been given to them. Clayborne was a Virginian who had received a license to trade with the Indians on Chesapeake Bay. Before Maryland was founded, he had established a trading post and a thriving settlement on Kent Island. He refused to submit to the authority of Lord Baltimore, and tried to hold the island by force. In 1634, he was driven out, and went to England to lay his case before the king. Lord Baltimore took possession of his settlements. Eleven years afterwards, Clayborne returned with a large force and drove the governor of Maryland out of the colony. The country was kept in turmoil for two or three years, when Lord Baltimore forced Clayborne to flee. This ended the contest.

Civil wars.—Clayborne's rebellion commenced not long after the Maryland colonists arrived. In 1645, after he had once been driven out of the colony, Clayborne returned with a strong force. Supported by large numbers of Puritans in the colony, he com-



OLIVER CROMWELL, 1599-1658
PROTECTOR, 1653-1658

elled the governor to flee from Maryland. Lord Baltimore collected a company and drove Clayborne away. After this, Cromwell settled the difficulty in the colony by declaring in favor of the Calverts. In 1658, Parliament restored Lord Baltimore to his rights, and Maryland, for about thirty

years, enjoyed a period of prosperity.

In 1689, William and Mary came to the throne,



WILLIAM III., 1650-1702
REIGNED, 1689-1702



MARY II., 1662-1694
REIGNED, 1689-1694

pledged to support the Protestant religion. The enemies of Lord Baltimore again made trouble and the new king took matters into his own hands. Parliament made new laws, took away the charter of the Calverts, and established the Church of England in the colony. Open Catholic worship was not allowed. In 1715, the third Lord Baltimore died, and his son, who had become a Protestant, was made proprietor. From that time to the revolution, Maryland was held by him and his descendants.

Government.—(1) Proprietary, (2) royal province, (3) proprietary.

Mason and Dixon's line.—In 1682, William Penn founded Pennsylvania. For many years afterwards, there were bitter disputes about the boundary between Pennsylvania and Maryland. At last, two English surveyors, Mason and Dixon, were employed (1763-1767) to establish a boundary that would satisfy both parties. They ran a line from the northeast corner of

Maryland due west, nearly three hundred miles. Stones were set up, five miles apart, having cut upon them, on the north side, the coat of arms of William Penn, and on the south side, the arms of Lord Baltimore. This became one of the famous boundaries of the country. Years afterward, it marked the division between the free States and the slave States which were formed from the thirteen original colonies.

RHODE ISLAND.—ENGLISH BAPTISTS

PROVIDENCE. 1636

Rhode Island was settled by Roger Williams in 1636.

The object was to make a place of refuge for religious exiles from Massachusetts.

The Puritans came to New England, not to establish religious freedom, but to found a church wherein they could worship according to their own ideas. They allowed no one but church members to vote, but they required all to assist in paying the expenses of the Puritan church. Roger Williams was pastor of the church in Salem in 1633, and he did not hesitate to condemn the Puritans for this system. He advocated entire separation of church and State, declared that no man should be obliged to pay taxes to support the church, that civil officers should not punish religious offences, that each man must be accountable for acts and opinions only to God and to his own conscience. He said that the king had no right to sell or give away the land in America, because it belonged to the Indians.

On account of his religious and political views Roger Williams was banished from Massachusetts Bay colony. To escape being sent to England, he went to live with the Indians. He could not speak their language but had won their friendship, so he fled to the wigwam of Massasoit where he remained through the winter.

In 1636, with a few friends he made a settlement at

the head of Narragansett Bay, on land which the Indians had given him. He named it Providence, in grateful memory of God's care over him. In 1639, he established, at Providence, the first Baptist church in America. This colony became a refuge for the persecuted of every religious faith.

To-day the United States constitution declares that no religious test shall be required as qualification for any office in the United States, but, at that time, it was strange doctrine that the government could not control the religious belief of a community.

In 1638, William Coddington, Mrs. Anne Hutchinson, and others in sympathy with Roger Williams, bought the island of Rhode Island and made settlements there.

The government was at first a democracy, a voluntary association. Only heads of families could vote, but all unmarried men must bind themselves to obey the laws.

In 1644, Williams went to England to secure a charter. (The year before Rhode Island was not admitted to the Union of colonies "because it had no charter".) The charter obtained by Williams united the settlements of Rhode Island into one province with power to make their own laws. A second charter, given twenty years later, confirmed the first, and was used as the State constitution until 1842. Rhode Island has at every period of her history given absolute freedom of worship, although at one time only Protestants were allowed to vote.

Brown university was founded, in 1764, at Providence.

DELAWARE.—SWEDES

CHRISTINA (NOW WILMINGTON) 1638

The Dutch attempted to make a settlement on the Delaware river in 1631, but it was destroyed by Indians.

Object.—In 1638, the Swedes, wishing to have a colony in America, settled near Wilmington on the Delaware river. Later they made other settlements and called the country New Sweden. The Dutch claimed the territory as part of New Netherlands, so Peter Stuyvesant marched against the Swedes, conquered them, and annexed their settlements to New Netherlands. He gave them permission to remain in the country and promised not to interfere with their religious worship. When, in 1664, the Duke of York took New Netherlands from the Dutch, this section was included in the surrender. William Penn afterwards bought from the English the “three counties on the Delaware”, so that his land might extend to the Atlantic. After this purchase, Delaware was governed as a part of Pennsylvania. After 1703, it had its own assembly. Delaware was not a separate State until it declared itself independent in 1776. After the Revolutionary war Delaware was the first State to adopt the Constitution.

The government was proprietary.

Delaware lawfully belonged to Lord Baltimore, but his rights were disregarded first by Swedes; then by the Dutch, who annexed it to New Netherlands; and then by the Duke of York, who took it from the Dutch and later sold it to William Penn. In 1732, the heirs of Penn and of Lord Baltimore agreed upon what is still the boundary line between Pennsylvania and Delaware.

NORTH CAROLINA

ALBEMARLE COLONY. 1663

This colony was settled by discontented English people from Virginia, who went to the Chowan river near Albermarle Sound. Another settlement was made on the Cape Fear river.

The object was to colonize and develop the new world.

The government was proprietary. Charles II., in 1663, gave the land to (1) Lord Clarendon and seven associates, (2) General Monk, who was the Duke of Albemarle, (3) Ashley Cooper, Lord Shaftesbury, (4) Lord Craven, (5) Sir John Colleton, (6) Sir George Carteret, (7) Lord Berkeley, and (8) Sir William Berkeley. Their grant included both North and South Carolina, as well as what is now Georgia and a part of Florida.

The grand model was the form of government planned for Carolina by John Locke and Lord Shaftesbury. The plan was to divide the great wilderness into vast estates with hereditary titles. It aimed to divide society into classes: the negroes, the white laborers, landholders without titles, the nobility, the eight proprie-



JOHN LOCKE, 1632-1704

tors, and, highest of all, the oldest proprietor. It set up courts of justice to regulate everything, even to matters of dress. The common people were not allowed to vote nor to hold landed property. They could not leave the farm on which they were working without permission of the nobleman who owned it.

After trying for twenty years to enforce this strange constitution, the proprietors were obliged to give up the plan. The colonies were so far apart that it was necessary to have two governors even while they were one province. In 1729, the colony was divided into North and South Carolina and each had a governor appointed by the king.

The growth of North Carolina was very slow. The population was scattered.

SOUTH CAROLINA

OLD CHARLESTON, ASHLEY RIVER. 1670

This colony was settled by Sir George Cartaret and others, who brought two shiploads of emigrants from England.

The objects were to christianize the Indians, and to found a refuge for Huguenots.

The government was (1) proprietary, (2) royal province.

Huguenots.—Religious liberty was enjoyed in South



LOUIS XIV., 1638-1715

REIGNED. 1643-1715

Carolina from the outset. In 1680, large numbers of Huguenots fled from France, where they were being persecuted by Louis XIV. They belonged to good families, were very intelligent, refined, and upright, of the highest character, and of elegant manners. Many eminent Americans have been descen-

dants of Huguenots who settled in South Carolina. At one time there were twenty thousand Huguenots in the colony. They brought to America the olive and mulberry, and established great plantations on the banks of the Cooper river. They also introduced many choice varieties of pears.

In 1694, a bag of seed-rice was brought to Charleston. This led to the cultivation of rice until it became the staple product of South Carolina. The cultivation of indigo was commenced in 1742 but was given up after a while because cotton was found to be a more profitable product.

Growth.—For the first twenty years this colony increased slowly. After that time the export of the agricultural products of the State made Charleston the leading commercial city in the South.

PENNSYLVANIA.—ENGLISH QUAKERS

PHILADELPHIA. 1682

William Penn was a young Englishman of wealth and culture, the son of Admiral Penn, who had been active in restoring Charles II. to the throne of England.



WILLIAM PENN, 1641-1784

Penn became a Friend while studying at Oxford. For his extreme religious opinions he was several times arrested and put into prison. The people of William Penn's faith called themselves Friends. Others, in derision, called them Quakers.

Object.—Upon the death of his father, to whom the king owed £16,000, Penn obtained a grant of land in America in payment of this debt. He wished to found a colony which would be a place of refuge for Quakers, and for the persecuted of all lands and of all religious faiths, and one which should have for its basis the Golden Rule. At one time, there were 4,000 Quakers in English prisons.

Government.—The king named the colony and made Penn proprietor. The government consisted of (1) the proprietor, (2) the council, and (3) the assembly. The proprietor appointed a governor but the

people chose the members of the council and assembly. Every taxpayer and freeholder was allowed to vote.

Prosperity.—Penn gave the settlers a popular government and the greatest religious privileges, and sold them land on liberal terms. In consequence, large numbers came to the colony, not only from England, but from all sections of Europe. In 1683, Penn founded Philadelphia, laying out the city with the greatest care. Within one year, a hundred houses were built, and in two years there were two thousand inhabitants. Philadelphia gained more in three years than New York did in fifty years. At the beginning of the revolution, it was the largest and most important city in the American colonies.

The great law.—Penn and the legislature of Pennsylvania met in 1682 and enacted the “Great Law”. This constitution gave the people of the colony great liberty, but it required obedience to the laws they had made. It provided: (1) that all colonists should be protected in their worship of God, but that no one should be compelled to support any form of worship against his will; (2) that all resident taxpayers should have a right to vote and that every member of any Christian church should have a right to hold office and become a member of the legislature; (3) that every child, after the age of twelve, should be brought up to some trade or useful occupation; (4) that the death penalty should be inflicted for two crimes only—murder and treason; (5) that every prison should be made a workshop and a place of reformation; (6) that Indians must be treated kindly.

Penn's treaty with the Indians.—In 1683, under an elm tree near Philadelphia, Penn met the Delaware Indians and made a treaty of peace and friendship with them. They exchanged belts of wampum, as pledges, and he paid them for the land. This treaty was never broken while the Quakers held control of Pennsylvania. The first Indian trouble in Pennsylvania occurred during the French and Indian war (1754-63).

Trouble with Delaware.—In 1684, after the colony had been fairly established, Penn returned to England, leaving the settlement in charge of a deputy-governor. “The lower counties on the Delaware” became dissatisfied and were allowed a separate assembly. Delaware was, however, a part of Pennsylvania until the revolution.

GEORGIA.—ENGLISH

SAVANNAH. 1733

The Spanish who had settled in Florida looked with disfavor upon the growing English colony in Carolina, and incited the Indians to destroy it.

Object.—James Oglethorpe, a brave soldier and a member of Parliament, wished to plant a colony which should serve as a military outpost for the defence of Carolina against the Spanish and Indians. He also desired to establish a place of refuge for poor debtors suffering in English prisons. He planned to select deserving men, pay their debts, and send them to America for a fresh start in life. The money for this undertaking was supplied partly by the government and partly by private individuals. A company of twenty-two men, led by Oglethorpe, formed an association. To this company George II. gave the land “in trust for the poor”. The colony was named after the king. Not all the people who came to Georgia were poor debtors. There was a colony of German Protestants and another of Scotch Highlanders.

The first settlement was at Savannah in 1733. Freedom of worship was granted to all but Roman Catholics. The people cultivated rice, indigo, silk, and cotton.

Restrictions.—It was provided (1) that for twenty-one years all laws should be made by the association;

(There was no government by the people.) (2) That no woman could inherit land. (This was to keep the land in the hands of those who could do military service.) (3) That rum could not be imported. (This deprived them of the West India trade.) (4) That no slaves could be brought to the colony. (Georgia could not compete with colonies which had slave labor.) (5) That no Roman Catholic could live in the colony.

Trouble with the Spaniards.—Florida, which was owned by Spain and occupied by Spaniards, bordered upon Georgia. There were several contests between the English colonists and the Spaniards. The English attacked St. Augustine and the Spanish attacked Charleston and Savannah, with no special result except to cause bitter feeling on both sides.

John and Charles Wesley, two brothers, founders of the Methodist church in America, came with Oglethorpe to do missionary work in Georgia.

George Whitefield, another Methodist preacher, established an orphan asylum near Savannah. He believed in slave-labor. Through his efforts, the laws were so changed that slaves could be owned in this colony and the importation of rum was allowed. Whitefield supported his orphan asylum from the products of slave labor upon his plantation in South Carolina.

The government was (1) proprietary, (2) royal province. At the end of twenty years, the trustees gave up their charter to the king and Georgia remained a royal province until the revolution.

REFERENCE TABLE. I

<i>Colony</i>	<i>When</i>	<i>Where</i>	<i>By whom</i>	<i>Leader</i>
Virginia	1607	Jamestown	English (London Co.)	John Smith
New York	1614	New York	Dutch	Henry Hudson
New Jersey	1618	Albany	Dutch	Berkeley and Carteret
	1665	Bergen Elizabethown	English	
Massachusetts	1620	Plymouth	English (Pilgrims)	Carver and Bradford
	1628	Salem	English (Puritans)	John Endicott
	1630	Boston	English (Puritans)	John Winthrop
New Hampshire	1623	Dover and Ports- mouth	English	Gorges and Mason
Connecticut	1633	Windsor	English	Winthrop
				Hooker Davenport
Maryland	1634	St. Mary's	English	Lord Baltimore
Rhode Island	1636	Providence	English	Roger Williams
Delaware	1638	Wilmington	Swedes	
			Dutch	
North Carolina	1663	Chowan river,	English	Lord Clarendon and others
		Albemarle Sound	English	
South Carolina	1670	Charleston	English	Lord Clarendon and others
Pennsylvania	1682	Philadelphia	English (Quakers)	William Penn
Georgia	1733	Savannah	English	Jas. Oglethorpe

REFERENCE TABLE. II

<i>Colony</i>	<i>Why settled</i>	<i>Religion</i>	<i>Government</i>
Virginia	To find gold	Church of Eng.	(1) Charter (2) Proprietary
New York	To carry on fur-trade	Dutch Reform'd	(3) Royal Province (1) Dutch Commercial Association (2) Proprietary
New Jersey	To carry on fur-trade; to colonize the country	Dutch Reform'd Church of Eng. Quaker	(3) Royal Province (1) Commercial Association (2) Proprietary
Massachusetts	To escape religious persecution; to found a colony	Pilgrim Church Puritan Church (Congregat'nal)	(3) Royal Province (1) Voluntary As'n (2) Charter
New Hampshire	To carry on fur-trade; to carry on fishing	Church of Eng.	(3) Royal Province (1) Proprietary (2) Royal Province
Connecticut	To carry on fur-trade and agriculture; to gain more civil freedom	Puritan Church	Charter
Maryland	To give English Catholics a refuge	Roman Catholic	(1) Proprietary (2) Royal Province (3) Proprietary
Rhode Island	To make a refuge for exiles from Mass.	Protestant (Baptists)	(1) Voluntary Association (2) Charter
Delaware	To give religious freedom; to found a colony	Swedish Church Quaker	Proprietary
North Carolina	To found a colony	Church of Eng.	(1) Proprietary (2) Royal Province
South Carolina	To found a colony	Church of Eng.	(1) Proprietary (2) Royal Province
Pennsylvania	To make a refuge for Eng'h Quakers	Quaker	Proprietary
Georgia	To aid poor debtors in England; to help protect S. Carolina.	Church of Eng. Protestant (Methodist)	(1) Proprietary (2) Royal Province

INTER-COLONIAL WARS

I. KING WILLIAM'S WAR. 1689-1697

Parties.—France and England.

Cause.—War in Europe between France and England. The English, after the revolution of 1688, had banished James II., who was a Roman Catholic, and called William and Mary to the throne of England.

Mary was the daughter of James, but she was a Protestant. Her husband was William, Prince of Orange, who lived in Holland.

Louis XIV. was king of France. He hated William of Orange, because the latter had helped to drive Louis out of Holland when he was trying to conquer that country. This French king espoused the cause of the exiled James II. against King William.

The English colonies in America took sides with England; the French colonies, with France; but the real trouble in America was that both the French and the English were anxious to get possession of the land in America. Their claims overlapped. In other words neither had any definite, recognized boundary.

This struggle between the French and the English lasted for more than seventy years.

The Iroquois were friendly to the English, but the other Indians took sides with the French. (Review the story of Champlain.)

Events.—(1) War parties of French and Indians

came down from Canada and made attacks upon various settlements in New York and New England, particularly at Schenectady, N. Y., and at Haverhill, Mass. (Learn the story of Hannah Dustin.)

(2) The English made a successful attack upon Port Royal, Nova Scotia, and an unsuccessful attack upon Canada.

Results.—This war was closed by the Treaty of Ryswick (a town in Holland), 1697. No change in the ownership of land in America was made. William was acknowledged king of England.

II. QUEEN ANNE'S WAR. 1702-1713

Five years after the Treaty of Ryswick had been signed, war again broke out.

King William had died and Anne, sister of Mary, had become queen of England.



ANNE, 1665-1714
REIGNED, 1702-1714

Parties.—England and France.

This war is sometimes called the War of the Spanish Succession. King Charles II. of Spain died in 1700, and named Philip of Anjou his successor. Philip was grandson of Louis XIV. of France. This would be almost a union of France and Spain. As Spain had control of a part of the Netherlands and of the northern part of Italy, this arrangement would affect "the balance of power" in Europe. Philip was very young, and, if he were king,

his grandfather would be the real ruler of Spain. Other nations would not tolerate a union of the two countries.

England, Holland, and Prussia united to prevent Philip from being king of Spain. They wished the son of the German Emperor to be appointed king, instead of Philip.

The English and the French were still in dispute about the land in America.

The Iroquois were neutral in this war, so New York did not suffer as much as in King William's war.

Events.—(1) The principal attacks were made in New England, particularly at Deerfield and Haverhill, in Mass.

(2) Port Royal, Nova Scotia, was again taken from the French and the name was changed to Annapolis in honor of the Queen. The English also made an unsuccessful attack upon Quebec.

Results.—Queen Anne's war was closed by the treaty of Utrecht (a town in Holland), in 1713.

By the terms of the treaty, England obtained control of the fisheries of Newfoundland, Labrador and Hudson Bay. Acadia was given to England and its name was changed to Nova Scotia. The French never regained it.

III. KING GEORGE'S WAR. 1744-1748

There was peace for thirty years after the treaty of Utrecht.

King George's war is sometimes called the War of the Austrian Succession.

Parties.—England and France.

Causes.—Upon the death of the German Emperor,



GEORGE II., 1683-1769
REIGNED, 1727-1760

Charles VI., his daughter, Maria Theresa, succeeded to the Austrian throne. France, Spain, and some other European nations united to overthrow this arrangement. They wished Charles, Elector of Bavaria, to be made emperor. George II., of England, took up the cause of Maria Theresa and Louis

XV. took up the cause of Charles.

The same difficulties about land in America continued.

The only event of importance in America was the capture of Louisburg by the English. This was the strongest fortress in America and had cost \$5,000,000.

The siege lasted six weeks, and 4,000 New England militia and four British war-ships were engaged.

Results.—The war closed with the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, (a town in Germany). By the terms of the treaty England gave back Louisburg to the French in exchange for a place in India which the French had captured.

The boundary line between Georgia and Florida was settled.

IV. THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR. 1754-1763

Causes.—(1) A mutual hatred existed between the French and English, who had been at war for nearly seventy years. (2) The French and English claimed the same land in America.

(3) The French built forts, Venango, Presque Isle, and Le Boeuf, on land which the English had granted to the Ohio Land Company. (4) The French built Fort Duquesne at the junction of the Alleghany and Monongahela rivers. (5) Washington was sent to the French commander of the forts to present the claims of the English.

The principal engagements of this war were made to gain possession of five important places: Fort Duquesne, Louisburg and Acadia, Crown Point and Ticonderoga, Niagara, and Quebec.

These places were called objective points because all the operations of the army were planned with the one object of gaining possession of them.

Definition.—Objective points are the places against which the operations of an army are directed.

1. Fort Duquesne was situated where the city of Pittsburg now stands. Consequently it was a point from which a large trade west of the Alleghanies could be controlled. If the French held it, the English colonies of Virginia and Pennsylvania would be exposed to Indian attacks.

2. Louisburg and Acadia were situated where Nova Scotia now lies. If the French held this section, they could easily attack New England, control the fisheries, and offer safe harbors for privateers, who might come out and capture English ships.

3. Crown Point and Ticonderoga were in the north-eastern part of New York near Lake Champlan. These places controlled the route to Canada by way of Lake

George and Lake Champlain. They also afforded a safe starting-point for French expeditions against New York and New England.

4. Niagara was at the mouth of the Niagara river and protected the great fur-trade of the upper lakes and the West.

5. Quebec was on the St. Lawrence river. It was the strongest fortification in Canada and controlled the St. Lawrence.

The object of the war was to decide whether the English or the French would control the continent of America.

The English greatly outnumbered the French, but the French had explored and taken possession of the two chief rivers of the country, the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi. They built a large number of forts at important positions along the Great Lakes and the Mississippi, on the present sites of Detroit, Chicago, St. Louis, New Orleans, and other cities.

The English held a narrow strip along the Atlantic coast a thousand miles in length.

The land west of the Alleghany mountains furnished an abundance of fur-bearing animals. Both the French and the English claimed the land and each tried to hold it. The English formed the Ohio Land Company and determined to send emigrants to that section to settle. The French captured the English surveyors and built a line of forts (Venango, Presque Isle, and Le Boeuf) to stop further English settlement.

Washington's journey, 1753.—The English decided to send a messenger to the French forts to state

that the English claimed the land on which the forts had been built and to ask the French to retire peaceably. George Washington was chosen to carry the message. He was twenty-one years old, strong and vigorous. He was a good surveyor. The journey was a difficult one, through forests, over mountains and across rivers, in a very wild country. The whole journey covered about a thousand miles and occupied two months. The French commander refused to yield to the English demands.

The journey had two results: Washington was greatly impressed with the immense value of the region through which he had journeyed; the English found out that the French could be dislodged only by force. Afterwards, Washington owned a great deal of land beyond the Alleghanies and was always interested in the settlement of "the West", as it was called.

1754.—The war began in the spring of 1754. The Ohio Company commenced to build a fort at the junction of the Alleghany and Monongahela rivers but the French drove them off and built the fort, naming it Duquesne. The English made an unsuccessful attempt to drive off the French. At Great Meadows the first skirmish of the war resulted in the defeat of the French.

At Fort Necessity, which had been built by the English about forty miles south of Fort Duquesne, the English under Washington were obliged to capitulate when attacked by a large force of French.

Destruction of Acadia, 1755.—Acadia had been settled by the French in 1605, but at the close of

Queen Anne's war, by the terms of the Treaty of



SIR ROBERT MONCKTON, 1726-1782

Utrecht, it had been given to England. The people were simple French peasants who still spoke the French language and secretly favored the French cause. The English suspected their hostility and urged the Acadians to take an oath of allegiance to the English king, but large numbers refused to do so. Then it was decided to banish them from the country. General Monckton was sent to accomplish this deed. Acadia was easily subdued. The unsuspecting men were called to the church and made prisoners. Then the land was laid waste, and the people were taken on board ships to be carried off into exile. Families were separated and scattered throughout the colonies, from Canada to Louisiana. Between six and seven thousand Acadians were removed from their homes.

Braddock's defeat, or the battle of Fort Duquesne.—In June, 1755, General Braddock was sent to capture Fort Duquesne. He was an officer in the regular army of Great Britain and his men were trained soldiers. Colonel Washington, with a body of Virginia soldiers, accompanied Braddock and warned him in regard to the Indian style of fighting. His words made no impression upon General Braddock, who said that the Indians might frighten the continental soldiers, but not the king's regulars. The army had to march 150 miles. By the end of a month they

were within five miles of the fort. Up to this time all had gone well. Suddenly they came to an ambush. The Indian war-whoop was heard on all sides. The British were frightened and fired at random. Braddock was mortally wounded and a panic followed. Washington and the Virginia soldiers sprang into the forest and fought the Indians. Half the British army was lost, but Washington, by his coolness and bravery, saved a part of it. It is said that Washington in this battle had two horses shot from under him, and that four balls passed through his clothing. One Indian shot at him fifteen times.



SIR WILLIAM JOHNSON, 1715-1774

In 1755, at about the time of Braddock's defeat, the English, under Johnson, defeated the French, under Dieskau, near Lake George. This caused great joy after the disaster at Fort Duquesne.

1756-1757.—In these two years very little was accomplished.

1758.—In 1757, the elder William Pitt became Prime Minister of England. He sent over fresh troops, and put new life into the war. The English gained several victories in 1758.

A new expedition against Fort Duquesne was planned by Washington. With seven thousand troops he marched to the fort. The French commander, having only a small force, burned the fort and fled. The English rebuilt it and named it Fort Pitt.



WILLIAM PITT, EARL OF CHATHAM.
1708-1778



LORD JEFFREY AMHERST.
1717-1778

Louisburg was besieged by Gen. Amherst. After a hard struggle it was captured and the famous fort was destroyed. It was never recovered by the French.

Fort Frontenac, now Kingston, which commanded the commerce of Lake Ontario, was captured by the English under Bradstreet.

1759.—All the struggles of this year ended in victory for the English. They captured Ticonderoga, Niagara, and Quebec.

Battle of Quebec.—The English under Wolfe be-



JAMES WOLFE, 1727-1259



MARQUIS DE MONTCALM, 1712-1759

sieged the city for nearly three months without success. The English had a large fleet and eight thousand land troops. The French had about the same number of soldiers commanded by Montcalm. Both generals were brave and skilful. The city consisted of an upper and a lower town. After easily destroying the lower town, the English general tried in vain to find a suitable point by which he might reach the heights. At length, he saw a sort of path whereby he thought he could take his men up the heights. In order to deceive the French he took his soldiers up the river in the day time. At night, he floated back with the tide. The men clambered up the steep bank, clinging to bushes and branches of trees. Next morning at dawn, the French saw the English on the Plains of Abraham, just outside the walls of Upper Quebec. A severe but decisive battle followed. Both commanders were mortally wounded, but the English won the day. Wolfe, when dying, was told that the French were running, and he said, "Now God be praised, I die in peace."

Montcalm, as he lay dying, was told that he could not live more than twelve hours. "So much the better," said he, "I shall not live to see the surrender of Quebec."

The city was given up to the English five days afterward, Sept. 18, 1759.

The fall of Quebec practically ended the war, though peace was not declared until 1763.

The treaty of Paris.—The treaty of peace was signed at Paris in 1763. By the terms of the treaty:

(1) Spain gave Florida to England in exchange for Havana, which the English had occupied during the war; (2) France gave England all her territory east of the Mississippi except Miquelon and St. Pierre, two small islands south of Newfoundland; (3) France gave Spain New Orleans and all her territory west of the Mississippi.

This treaty gave the English the supremacy of the American continent.

Pontiac's war.—The colonies did not immediately have peace. The western Indians hated the English and were angry at seeing the French forts occupied by British garrisons. In 1763, Pontiac, chief of the Ottawas, formed a conspiracy and attacked eight forts. It became necessary to send a strong force against the Indians. This trouble lasted about a year.

Results of the French and Indian war.—It cost \$16,000,000, of which England paid \$5,000,000. The Americans lost 30,000 men. The British gained control of the country east of the Mississippi, including Florida, but they gave up all claim to land west of the Mississippi. Spain secured all the land west of the Mississippi. The French lost all except the two islands south of Newfoundland. This war put an end to the idea of a French empire in America.

The colonists became skilled in the art of war, and became more united among themselves.

In this war Washington, Montgomery, Stark, Arnold, Putnam, and others received the training which made them great commanders during the revolutionary war.

The Albany convention (1754); Franklin's plan

of Union, or the Albany plan.—About the begin-



BENJAMIN FRANKLIN, 1706-1790

ning of the French and Indian war a congress was called at Albany. Maryland and the northern colonies sent delegates. Representatives of the Iroquois Indians were present. The object of the meeting was: (1) to make a treaty with the Indians, and (2) to form a colonial union for

mutual assistance and protection. Franklin was then publishing the "Pennsylvania Gazette" in which he urged the importance of such a union. In the paper he printed a picture representing a snake cut in several pieces and the motto "Join or die" under the picture. As delegate from Pennsylvania, Franklin proposed that a confederation be formed to be governed by a president appointed by the king, and a council chosen by the colonial assemblies. The congress adopted the plan but it was rejected by the king and by the assemblies in the various colonies. The king thought it gave too much power to the people and the colonists thought it gave too much power to the king.

CONDITION OF THE COLONIES IN 1763

The thirteen original colonies consisted of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut, in the New England group; New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Delaware, in the middle group; Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, in the southern group.

Population.—The people numbered more than a million and a half, of whom 400,000 were slaves. Three-fourths of the slaves were living south of Mason and Dixon's line. At the North the slaves were employed principally as house-servants, while in the South they worked on the plantations.

In many of the colonies white people were "bound out" as indentured servants.

Cities.—Philadelphia, Boston, New York, and Charleston were the largest cities. Philadelphia had about 25,000 inhabitants.

Government.—Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut had charter governments. Maryland and Pennsylvania, with Delaware, were proprietary. The others were royal provinces. All the colonies had legislative assemblies elected by the people. These assemblies helped to make the laws, subject to the approval of the governor, except in Rhode Island and Connecticut, where the governor's assent was not required.

The laws of that time were severe, and capital punishment was inflicted for several offences. Affairs of private life, such as wages, matters of dress, attendance at church, etc., were regulated by law. For trifling offences people were placed in the stocks or pillory.

Language, religion.—Most of the colonists spoke the English language. Nearly all were Protestants. In Virginia and Maryland, the Church of England was the established church. In New England, nearly all the people were Congregationalists. Pennsylvania and Rhode Island furnished absolute freedom of worship.

Occupations.—Farming was the chief occupation in most colonies. There were some manufactories in the North. New England built hundreds of ships and had a thriving commerce.

Exports.—The North exported fish, lumber, furs, and iron. The South exported tobacco, rice, indigo, tar, and turpentine.

The farmers led quiet but busy lives. They built their houses of logs or of roughly hewn timbers. Nearly all their food was produced on the farm. The cooking was done before the great fireplace or in the brick oven. The people dressed in homespun.

In the cities there was a great deal of wealth. The houses were large and well-built. The rich merchants lived in luxury and entertained in great style. Gentlemen wore lace ruffles at their wrists, knee-breeches, white silk stockings, and shoes with silver buckles. They powdered their hair and tied it back with a black ribbon. The ladies also powdered their hair and wore rich and costly clothing.

Travel.—People in the colonies made few journeys. When obliged to travel they generally went by water. If they went by land, the journey must be made on foot or on horseback, or in a clumsy coach which made not more than three miles an hour.

Education.—Almost from the beginning, free schools were established in New England. In the middle colonies, there were many public schools, especially in Pennsylvania. At the South, it was more difficult to maintain schools because of the scattered population. The wealthy planters hired tutors or sent

their sons to England to be educated. Some of the royal governors were opposed to the education of the common people.

It was contrary to law and custom to teach the slaves.

At the beginning of the revolution there were nine colleges in the colonies. The oldest are Harvard, at Cambridge, Mass., (1636); William and Mary at Williamsburg, Va., (1692); Yale at New Haven, Conn., (1700); Princeton at Princeton, N. J., (1746); University of Pennsylvania at Philadelphia, Penn., (1749); and King's (now Columbia) at New York city, (1754).

Books.—The best American writers of that time



JONATHAN EDWARDS. 1703-1758

were Benjamin Franklin and Rev. Jonathan Edwards. For many years Franklin published "Poor Richard's Almanac". Scattered through the book were many maxims teaching thrift and self-reliance. Edwards wrote a religious book, "On the Freedom of the Will". This

was his greatest work.

Painters.—The earliest painters in the colonies were Copley and West.

Newspapers.—The Boston News Letter, a weekly publication, was the first regular paper printed in the colonies (1690).

The mails were carried on horse-back, and the postage on a letter was often as high as 25 cents.

PERIOD III

THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR. 1775-1783

Remote Causes	{ Navigation Acts. Effects of Inter-Colonial Wars. Arbitrary conduct of King George III.
Direct Causes	{ "Taxation without Representation." The Stamp Act, 1765. Tax on Tea, 1767. Mutiny Act, 1768. Boston Massacre, 1770. Writs of Assistance. The Boston Tea Party, 1773. The Boston Port Bill, 1774.

The navigation acts were laws passed by the British Parliament at various times (1631, 1651, 1660, and 1663) which ordered that all the commerce of the colonies should be carried on in ships owned and manned by Englishmen, that tobacco and other exports of the colonies should be sent to England, and that the imports of the colonies should be purchased in England. The object was to make a market for English goods and to increase the commerce of England. These laws created bitter feeling in America.

Results of the French and Indian war.—England expected the colonies to pay the greater part of

the large debt incurred by the French and Indian war. A feeling of resentment was the natural consequence. During this war the American people had been drawn more closely together and had gained skill and experience in military affairs.

The stamp act passed by Parliament in 1765 ordered that stamps, bought of the English government, should be put on all legal documents, newspapers, pamphlets, etc. Stamped paper was also provided on which these papers could be written or printed. The colonists seized the stamps and burned them in the streets. Public meetings were held and patriotic speeches were made by Samuel and John Adams, Patrick Henry, and James Otis.

So much opposition was shown by the Americans that the Stamp act was repealed the next year. It had never been enforced. England still claimed the right to impose taxes upon the colonies.

A tax on tea was placed by the British government, and on glass, paper, and paints. This money was to be used (1) to pay British soldiers sent over to America, (2) to pay the king's officers in the colonies, and (3) to bribe Americans, if possible, to take sides with the king. The merchants throughout the colonies decided not to import these articles until the tax should be removed. Finally, the law was repealed except that part which related to tea. To maintain their right to tax the colonists, the British agreed to sell the tea at so low a price that, including the taxes, it could be bought for less money in America than in England.

Ship-loads of tea were sent to various cities in

America, not in the way of regular trade, but as a scheme to get the colonists to pay the tax after all. At Charleston, the tea was unloaded and stored in damp cellars where it soon spoiled. The tea-ships which went to New York and Philadelphia were sent back to England without being unloaded. The real test of principle came at Boston where three tea-ships had arrived. The citizens of Boston and neighboring towns were determined that the tea should not be landed. When they found that they could not have the ships sent back, a small company of citizens, disguised as Indians, went down to the harbor, boarded the ships, and threw three hundred and forty-two chests of tea, valued at \$100,000, into the water. This adventure was called the Boston Tea Party.

To punish the people of Boston for destroying the tea and defying the British government, Parliament passed the Boston port bill, which ordered the closing of the port of Boston until the tea should be paid for. This stopped business and caused much distress in Boston. A second law made Gen. Gage military governor of Massachusetts.

Writs of assistance.—On account of heavy duties on imported goods smuggling had become very common. About 1761, by authority of the king, search warrants, called writs of assistance, were issued. Supplied with one of these writs, an English officer could enter any man's house and search for smuggled goods. Englishmen have always felt that "Every man's house is his castle". This sentiment was held in America, too, and the British officers were resisted whenever they tried to make a search.

The mutiny act, 1768.—Parliament ordered that British soldiers be sent to the American colonies to aid in the enforcement of the laws, and that the colonists be required to furnish food and lodging for them. One purpose of the Stamp act was to provide money for the support of these soldiers.

The Boston massacre, March 5, 1770.—The British soldiers had been in Boston a year and a half. Frequent quarrels took place between the soldiers and citizens. One day a fight occurred between a company of seven soldiers and a crowd of men and boys. Three citizens were killed and eight were wounded. Next day an immense mass meeting was held in the old South church and three thousand citizens demanded the removal of the soldiers. They were at once taken to an island in the harbor.

This quarrel occurred in King street, now State street. The guards who had fired on the Americans were tried for murder, John Adams and James Otis defending them. All were acquitted but two, and those were convicted of manslaughter. The quarrel was provoked by men and boys, who never lost an opportunity to annoy the soldiers.

The Boston Port bill was the order passed by Parliament, in 1774, to close the port of Boston, to allow no ships to go out or come in. This was to punish Boston for destroying the tea.

Sons of Liberty.—Secret societies were formed among the colonists to resist the unjust laws passed by England, particularly the Stamp act. These associations were called “Sons of Liberty”.

Minute men were American citizens who, in 1774, formed themselves into companies, ready, at a minute's notice, to take arms and defend the country against England. Massachusetts furnished 4,000 minute men.

Whigs and Tories.—As early as 1774, the people were divided into two political parties. Not all Americans were on the side of liberty. The Whigs, or patriots, were those who resisted the unjust demands of the English government and sympathized with the American cause. The Tories favored the king and Parliament.

The first continental congress met at Philadelphia Sept. 5, 1774. It was composed of the most influential men of the country. Every colony except Georgia sent delegates. They did not demand representation in Parliament but they did claim the right to levy taxes and make laws in the various colonial assemblies. (This was a declaration of their rights.) The congress sustained Massachusetts in her resistance to British injustice and sent a petition to the king. The spirit of the meeting was calm and respectful, but determined.

“Taxation without representation.”—The one great cause of the revolution was the attempt of the king and Parliament to tax the American people without allowing them to send representatives to Parliament, to have a voice in making the laws by which they were to be governed. This was “Taxation without representation”, which James Otis declared to be tyranny.

Provincial congress.—After General Gage was

appointed governor of Massachusetts he dissolved the assembly. Except in the city of Boston, the people ignored his authority and formed a provincial government with John Hancock as governor. Committees of safety were appointed, under whose direction companies of minute men were formed and the people began to collect military stores at Concord and other places.

Lexington and Concord.—In April, 1775, General Gage was ordered to arrest John Hancock and Samuel Adams on the charge of treason and send them to England for trial. The British had heard that the Americans had gathered military stores at Concord, twenty miles away. General Gage sent Major Pitcairn with eight hundred men to destroy these stores, and instructed him to stop on the way and arrest John Hancock and Samuel Adams, who were then in Lexington. The expedition was planned with the greatest secrecy but the vigilant Americans found out the plans of the British, and Paul Revere rode off through the country giving the warning at every farmhouse on the way.

The British arrived in Lexington early on the morning of April 19, 1775, and found a company of minute men drawn up on the common. Pitcairn ordered them to disperse and called them rebels. As they remained where they were, the British fired and killed seven men. This was the beginning of the revolution.

The British moved on towards Concord, but by the time they arrived, the Americans had removed most of the stores. A sharp fight followed and the British began a retreat, but all the way back to Boston the

Americans fired upon them from behind trees, or walls, or fences, wherever they found opportunity.

The British lost 300 men and, if they had not received re-inforcements from Boston, it is probable that the whole force would have been destroyed. The American loss was 93 men.

Effect of the battle of Lexington.—The news of this encounter spread with wonderful rapidity. From every part of the country men gathered to follow up the advantage gained. In a few days an army of 16,000 Americans had surrounded Boston on the land side and had practically begun the siege of Boston.

The second continental congress.—The second



GEORGE WASHINGTON, 1732-1799
PRESIDENT, 1789-1797

continental congress met at Philadelphia May 10, 1775, John Hancock presiding. This congress continued throughout the war. During the session of 1775, the congress sent a petition to the king, voted to raise an army of twenty thousand men, and made George Washington commander-in-chief of the continental forces. The congress of 1775 also issued \$2,000,000 in paper money, called continental currency.

Capture of Ticonderoga.—On May 10, 1775, the very day on which the second continental congress met, occurred the capture of Ticonderoga. The expedition was led by Ethan Allen, who surprised and captured the fort without firing a gun. Benedict

Arnold accompanied Ethan Allen on this expedition. Two hundred and twenty cannon and large stores of ammunition were secured without the loss of a man. Crown Point was captured the next day.

Battle of Bunker Hill.—In 1775, Generals Howe, Clinton, and Burgoyne came to Boston with additional troops, making the British force there about ten thousand. The Americans learned that General Gage intended to fortify Bunker Hill, in Charlestown, across the Charles river, and overlooking Boston. They determined to secure the position before the British could do so.

Colonel Prescott, with about fifteen hundred men, marched from Cambridge to Bunker Hill. It was bright moonlight but the Americans worked so quietly that the British did not suspect what was going on. At daylight, the people in Boston were astonished to see the fortifications that had gone up in a night.

General Gage saw that he must drive the Americans from Bunker Hill lest they drive him out of Boston. With three thousand soldiers Howe crossed the river. The Americans, having only a small supply of powder, waited until the British were quite near before firing. They cut down whole lines of the enemy. The British made a second attack with the same result. They were driven back twice. During the battle Charlestown was set on fire, and under cover of the smoke the British officers rallied their men and made a third attack. This time they were successful. The Americans had no more ammunition and they were obliged to retreat. The Americans lost 449, the British more than a thousand men. This battle was fought June 17, 1775.

The effect of the battle of Bunker Hill.—The effect of this battle was like that of victory, because the untrained American soldiers had forced the British regulars to retreat. It gave the Americans great courage and disheartened the British.

Washington took command of the continental army July 3, 1775, about two weeks after the battle of Bunker Hill. The ceremony took place at Cambridge, Mass., under an elm tree still standing and called the Washington elm.

The condition of the army when Washington took command was very discouraging. There were about fourteen thousand men, poorly armed and without any military training. They had no uniforms and their clothing was insufficient.

Attack on Quebec, Dec. 31, 1775.—In the summer of 1775, the Americans learned that the British were intending to come down from Canada to attack points in New York. To prevent this, congress sent



DANIEL MORGAN, 1736-1802

Montgomery to attack Quebec. Benedict Arnold and Daniel Morgan with 1,200 men started to join Montgomery, going by way of the Kennebec river in Maine. This journey occupied nearly two months and the men suffered the greatest hardships. The two armies reached Quebec early in December, their united forces being about nine hundred men. The British

had about fifteen hundred. An unsuccessful assault was made Dec. 31, 1775. Montgomery was killed, Arnold was wounded, and Morgan was captured. The small remnant under Arnold continued the siege for several months, but in June, 1776, all the forces were withdrawn to Crown Point.

The siege of Boston. Evacuation of the British.—Waiting for ammunition and guns, the Americans kept up the siege of Boston during the winter of 1775–6. In the spring General Knox succeeded in getting to Cambridge forty or more of the guns captured at Ticonderoga the year before. On the night of March 4, 1776, Washington seized Dorchester Heights and placed these cannon in position there. This gave the Americans a secure position. Only two courses remained to the British—to drive off the Americans or to give up the city of Boston.

On the 17th of March, 1776, St. Patrick's Day, the whole British force with hundreds of Tories, sailed away to Halifax. The next day Washington entered Boston, but soon transferred his headquarters to New York city.

Battle of Fort Moultrie.—On June 28, 1776, a British fleet attacked Fort Sullivan at Charleston, South Carolina. Gen. Clinton with land troops, attacked the fort in the rear. The Americans held the fort and kept up so vigorous a fire upon the fleet that they were obliged to withdraw. Clinton's troops also were forced to retreat. General Moultrie was in command of the Americans at the time of the attack. In his honor, the name of the fort was changed to

Fort Moultrie. Charleston was not attacked again for two years.

The Hessians were Germans, hired by England to fight the Americans. The Prince of Hesse-Cassel, and other petty German princes, sold the services of twenty thousand Hessians to the king of England.

Declaration of Independence.—Up to 1776, the Americans had been trying to obtain their rights as loyal British subjects. At this time it became evident that there was no hope of obtaining any fair treatment in England.

In June, 1776, Richard Henry Lee, of Virginia, offered the following resolution in congress: “*Resolved, that these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States, that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British Crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved.*” The resolution also urged the forming of foreign alliances and arranged for a plan of union for the colonies.



JOHN ADAMS, 1735-1826
PRESIDENT, 1797-1801



THOMAS JEFFERSON, 1743-1826
PRESIDENT, 1801-1809



ROBERT R. LIVINGSTON, 1746-1813

to the committee John Adams and Benjamin Franklin suggested one or two slight changes which were made.

Congress adopted the Declaration of Independence July 4, 1776. Its passage was celebrated by illuminations, ringing of bells, and shouts of joy. The thirteen colonies had become the United States of America.

Campaign near New York.—The campaign of 1776 was the first great campaign of the war. In April, Washington removed his headquarters to New York, where he expected the British to strike the

next blow. This city was the military centre and if the British held it, they would be likely to gain control of the Hudson river also, thus cutting off New England from the other colonies.

Washington built Forts Lee and Washington on opposite sides of the Hudson and fortified Brooklyn



ISRAEL PUTNAM, 1718-1790

Heights, where he stationed General Putnam with nine thousand soldiers, about half of his entire army.



ADMIRAL RICHARD HOWE, 1725-1799



GEN. WILLIAM HOWE, 1729-1814

In June Howe arrived with a fleet and an army of thirty thousand men, making his headquarters on Staten Island. He saw at once that if he could take Brooklyn Heights he could drive the Americans out of New York, just as Washington had driven him out of Boston by holding Dorchester Heights. Accordingly he landed twenty thousand men on the southern shore of Long Island. Sullivan and Stirling with four



JOHN SULLIVAN
1740-1795



WILLIAM ALEXANDER,
LORD STIRLING, 1725-1783

thousand men went out to meet him. On August 27,

occurred what is known as the *Battle of Long Island*. About four hundred were killed on each side, and Sullivan and Stirling, with a thousand soldiers, were captured by the British. The remaining American forces retreated to the fort and Howe planned to besiege them. If Howe had followed up his advantage, he might easily have captured the whole force. He waited two days for the ships to come up and assist him.

In the mean time Washington, who had crossed over to Fort Putnam with reinforcements, decided that to retreat was the only means of saving his army. The second night after the battle of Long Island, he secured as many boats as possible and took the whole force over to New York in safety. A dense fog protected his movements during this remarkable escape.

The result of the battle of Long Island was to give the British possession of a strong military centre which they held throughout the war.

Americans evacuate New York.—Sept. 18, 1776, Howe entered New York and on the same day Washington completed the removal of the American army from the city. (Learn the story of Nathan Hale.)

Washington took position at Harlem Heights, where Howe tried to attack him in the rear. Washington then removed to White Plains. Here a part of his army was defeated and he retired to North Castle, which was well fortified. Howe refused to follow him further, and sent a detachment of Hessians to capture Fort Washington, a plan of which he had received from a deserter. With the fort, the British captured 3,000 Americans. Meanwhile the Americans had fortified West Point, in order to prevent the British from going up to Albany.

Washington crossed to the west bank of the Hud-



CHARLES LEE, 1731-1782

son, leaving Charles Lee in command at North Castle. Finding the force under Cornwallis stronger than his own, Washington ordered Lee to join him. This Lee refused to do, and the result of his disobedience was the flight of the American army through New Jersey.

Retreat through New Jersey.—After the fall of Fort Mifflin, the Americans abandoned Fort Mifflin. Washington then began his famous retreat across New Jersey, hoping to save his army and to prevent the capture of Philadelphia by the British. Cornwallis with six thousand men pursued him. Washington broke down bridges, destroyed provisions which might fall into the hands of the British, and did all he could to delay the enemy. It took nearly three weeks, from Nov. 19 to Dec. 8, to make this retreat of about seventy miles. Finding he could not hold New Jersey, Washington seized every boat for about a hundred miles up and down the river, and took his army safely across the Delaware just above Trenton. When the British reached the river and found no means of crossing they decided to wait until the river should be frozen over. Cornwallis returned to New York, leaving his main army at Princeton and an advance force of a thousand Hessians at Trenton.

Early in December, Charles Lee took his army down into New Jersey. While outside his lines, he was captured by the British. The command then fell upon General Sullivan, who at once marched to join Washington in Pennsylvania. At this time, Washington had only 6,000 men fit for duty.

Battle of Trenton.—Dec. 25, 1776, Washington, with twenty-five hundred men re-crossed the Delaware which was full of floating ice. After a march of nine miles, in a furious snow storm, he attacked and surprised the Hessians at Trenton. The whole force was captured and Rahl, the German commander, was killed, while the Americans lost only four men. By Dec. 31, Washington had brought his whole army back to New Jersey.

The effect of the battle of Trenton.—The effect of the battle of Trenton was wonderful. It gave new courage to the disheartened American patriots and entirely changed the plans of the British.

Fearing an attack upon Philadelphia, congress adjourned for a short time to Baltimore. The congress of 1776 made the Declaration of Independence, sent a committee to France, and appointed a committee to prepare Articles of Confederation. The issue of continental currency was continued.

The two great needs of the country were money to carry on the war, and a central authority to direct the war.

Robert Morris.—Robert Morris, of Philadelphia, was a banker and a firm friend of Washington. At the close of 1776, Washington wrote to Morris asking him to send to headquarters as much money as possible in hard cash. Robert Morris went from house to house among his friends, asking them to loan money to the government. Jan. 1, 1777,



ROBERT MORRIS, 1734-1806

he sent Washington \$50,000. This was as good as another victory. New recruits were obtained, and many whose term of enlistment had expired, re-enlisted.

Battle of Princeton, 1777.—Jan. 3, 1777, Washington's camp was at Trenton. Cornwallis rejoined his army at Princeton and, with a large force, moved down to attack Washington. Late in the day, January 2, he reached Trenton. Cornwallis felt sure that Washington could not escape and deferred the attack until morning.

Meanwhile Washington made a pretence of strengthening his fortifications and kept his camp-fires burning brightly. During the night, however, he marched his army around behind the British camp, and, by country roads, reached Princeton, ten miles away. He surprised and defeated the British there, took several hundred prisoners, and escaped to Morristown Heights where he made his winter quarters. Cornwallis heard the noise of battle and hurried on to Princetown, but he was too late. The British had supplies at New Brunswick, N. J., and to that place Cornwallis took his army.

Thus ended the campaign near New York, which opened with a series of disasters and great suffering for the patriots, and now ended with two brilliant victories. The only real advantage gained by the British was the capture of New York city.

Washington spent the winter of 1776-1777 at Morristown Heights trying to organize an army of men who should serve during the war. Congress called for new enlistments.

Pennsylvania campaign, 1777. Washington at Morristown, and Howe at New York.—June 12, 1777, Howe took 18,000 men into New Jersey and marched toward Philadelphia. Washington knew that his own army was not strong enough to risk a battle with the British, but, by delaying and annoying Howe, he caused that general to waste about three weeks. June 30, Howe returned to Staten Island in disgust.

In July, Howe started again to attack Philadelphia, going this time by sea. He could not go by the Delaware river, on account of Forts Mercer and Mifflin, which defended the city, so he went around by Chesapeake Bay and landed his men at Elkton.

Battle of Brandywine.—Sept. 11, 1777, Washington met Howe at Chad's Ford on the Brandywine, and



MARQUIS DE LAFAYETTE, 1757-1834

tried to stop his advance. In this battle Lafayette and Pulaski aided the Americans, and all showed the greatest bravery, but the British compelled them to retreat. Washington blocked Howe's way continually, so that it took him two weeks to reach Philadelphia, twenty-six miles distant.

Philadelphia was taken Sept. 26, 1777.

Meanwhile Congress removed to Lancaster and later to York, Pennsylvania.

Battle of Germantown, Oct. 4, 1777.—Howe left a small force at Germantown, six miles from

Philadelphia, and proceeded to destroy the forts on the Delaware, which prevented his bringing supplies up the river. While he was away, Washington attacked the British at Germantown. At first the Americans were successful, but a thick fog caused confusion, and the Americans retreated.

Howe bombarded Forts Mercer and Mifflin, and the Americans evacuated.

Winter of 1777-1778.—Washington went into winter quarters at Valley Forge on the Schuylkill, twenty miles northwest of Philadelphia.

Burgoyne's invasion, 1777.—For the summer of



JOHN BURGoyNE, 1722-1792

1777, the British planned a campaign by which they expected to get control of New York and the Hudson river. Burgoyne was to invade New York from the north, by way of Lake Champlain, capture Ticonderoga, and descend the Hudson to Albany. St. Leger was to take a small force by way of the St. Lawrence and Lake Ontario, land at Oswego, march through the Mohawk valley, capture Fort Stanwix, and join Burgoyne. Howe was to send a large portion of his army up the Hudson, capture the forts on the Highlands, and proceed to Albany.

In June, 1777, Burgoyne left Canada with ten thousand men, including many Indians. General Schuyler was in command of the American army in northern

New York. July 5, the British captured Fort Ticonderoga, and July 31, the Americans evacuated Fort Edward, retreating to Bemis Heights, or Stillwater, twenty miles above Albany. During this retreat, Schuyler felled trees across the road, destroyed forty bridges, and did all he could to delay Burgoyne, so



PHILIP SCHUYLER, 1733-1804



HORATIO GATES, 1728-1806

that his progress was often only one mile a day. Schuyler was blamed for the American losses and was superseded by General Gates.

Battle of Bennington, Aug. 16, 1777.—Bur-

goyne found the greatest difficulty in procuring horses and supplies for his army. Hearing that the Americans had supplies at Bennington he sent Colonel Baum, with a thousand Hessians and Indians, to capture the town and bring the supplies to Albany. General Stark and his men met the enemy and



JOHN STARK, 1728-1822

captured six hundred prisoners. Less than a hundred escaped.

Battle of Oriskany, Aug. 6, 1777.—St. Leger besieged Fort Stanwix (now Rome). At that time, it was the most western settlement in New York. About eight hundred men under General Herkimer were



BARRY ST. LEGER, 1737-1789



NICHOLAS HERKIMER, 1715-1777

marching to relieve the fort when they encountered an ambush at Oriskany, a few miles from the Fort. A terrible hand-to-hand fight occurred and General Herkimer was mortally wounded, but he held his ground and the enemy retreated.

Flight of St. Leger, Aug. 22, 1777.—St. Leger continued the siege. Meanwhile Benedict Arnold with eight hundred men was marching to the relief of Fort Stanwix. This he accomplished by stratagem. A half-witted Tory boy who had been taken prisoner was promised his freedom if he would make the British believe that a large force of American soldiers was close at hand. The boy ran, breathless and excited, to the British camp, told of a narrow escape, and represented that Americans, as numerous as leaves on

the trees, were fast approaching. The British and Indians fled in haste, leaving tents and artillery behind, when Arnold was still twenty miles away. During the siege the new flag of the United States had floated over the fort.

The Oswego expedition failed to accomplish anything for the British. New recruits joined the American army until General Gates had a force of ten thousand men eager to meet the enemy.

The battle of Bemis Heights, or the first battle of Saratoga, Sept. 19, 1777.—Burgoyne attacked the Americans at Bemis Heights. The battle began at ten o'clock in the morning and continued until night, with success first on one side and then on the other. Both sides withdrew to their fortifications, each claiming the victory. Arnold and Gates quarrelled, and Arnold gave up his commission.

Second battle of Saratoga, Oct. 7, 1777.—For two weeks both armies waited, each watching for some advantage over the other. In the British camp were hundreds of sick and wounded, their provisions were getting low, and the expected help from New York did not arrive. Under these circumstances, with matters getting worse each day, Burgoyne again attacked the Americans. A fierce battle was fought, in which Arnold rushed to the front and took command, Gates remaining in his tent. Arnold was wounded just as the battle was won. Burgoyne retreated to Saratoga, where he was soon completely surrounded by the American army.

Surrender of Burgoyne.—Oct. 17, 1777, Bur-

goyne's entire army, about 6,000 men, laid down their arms, and General Burgoyne delivered his sword to General Gates.

Burgoyne's surrender marked the turning point in the war. The Americans were greatly encouraged. The British plans for the war were completely broken up. The French made an alliance with America.

Noted foreigners.—During 1776 and 1777, several



THADEUS KOSCIUSKO, 1746-1817



BARON STEUBEN, 1730-1794

distinguished foreigners came to America and received commissions in the continental army. Kosciusko and Pulaski came early in 1775. Lafayette and DeKalb came in the spring of 1777. Baron Steuben came in December, 1777. Kosciusko had charge of the defences at Saratoga.

The Conway cabal was a secret conspiracy against Washington. Many Americans did not appreciate Washington's work in Pennsylvania in 1777, and blamed him for the loss of Philadelphia. Gates had received the credit of Burgoyne's surrender. General Conway and other disaffected officers of the American

army tried to bring about the removal of Washington, hoping to see General Gates put in his place.

The winter in Valley Forge has been called the darkest period of the war. Washington and his army were in most discouraging circumstances. The weather was unusually severe and supplies of food and clothing could not be procured. The continental currency was worthless and congress had no other money. Washington's enemies were plotting his downfall.

Early in December, 1777, Baron Steuben arrived in America and spent the winter in drilling the soldiers at Valley Forge.

1778. Alliance with France, February.—Through the efforts of Franklin, a treaty between France and the United States was signed early in 1778. By this treaty France acknowledged the independence of the United States and pledged assistance. During the war, France loaned us money, furnished military supplies, sent us soldiers under Rochambeau, and fleets under d'Estaing and De Grasse. Before the treaty



COMTE DE ROCHAMBEAU, 1725-1807



COMTE D'ESTAING, 1729-1794

had been signed considerable secret assistance had been given by France.

Results of the alliance.—The English government repealed some of its obnoxious laws and sent commissioners to this country to offer the colonies all that they had asked for, except independence. Clinton received orders to leave Philadelphia and concentrate his troops at New York.

Evacuation of Philadelphia.—While the British



SIR HENRY CLINTON, 1738-1799

occupied Philadelphia General Howe was superseded by Sir Henry Clinton. The British were afraid that the French fleet, which had arrived in America, would blockade the Delaware river. For this reason, they decided to retire from Philadelphia. Washington re-entered the city June 18 and soon after

Congress returned to Philadelphia. After its evacuation by the British, the city was placed under command of Arnold.

Battle of Monmouth, June 28, 1778.—In June, 1778, 15,000 British troops started overland for New York, followed by Washington with about the same number. The Americans came up with the British at Monmouth June 28. General Charles Lee had received orders to commence the attack. By disobedience, he nearly lost the battle. The Americans were retreating when Washington rode up, reproved Lee, turned the men back, and repulsed the British. The battle lasted until night when the British stole off to New York. (Learn the story of Mollie Pitcher). General Lee was

dismissed from the service (see page 114). Evidence of his disloyalty to the American cause has been found in correspondence recently made public.

Monmouth was the last important battle fought in the North during the revolution. Washington now made his headquarters at Morristown and, extending his lines as far as the Hudson, watched every movement of the British in New York.

Raids; marauding expeditions.—During the summer and fall of 1778, tories and Indians entered the Wyoming Valley in Pennsylvania, and Cherry Valley in New York. In many villages all the able-bodied men had joined the American army, leaving at home only the old men, women, and children. The invaders burned the houses, destroyed crops, and massacred the inhabitants.

Capture of Savannah, Dec. 29, 1778.—Disappointed in all their plans at the North, the British decided to begin at Georgia and work northward, hoping to keep at least the southern colonies. With a greatly superior force, they attacked and captured Savannah Dec. 29, 1778.

1779.—The British captured Augusta and soon had control of the whole State of Georgia. During the year 1779, but little was accomplished on either side. Tories and Indians continued their raids at various places along the frontier.

Sullivan's expedition.—During the summer of 1779, Gen. Sullivan was sent to lay waste the Genesee Valley, in retaliation for the massacres in the Wyoming and Cherry Valleys the year before. Sullivan burned forty Indian villages and destroyed their harvest fields.

Stony Point.—In June, 1779, the British captured Stony Point on the Hudson.



ANTHONY WAYNE, 1745-1796

In July, General Wayne, called "Mad Anthony", for his reckless bravery, surprised and captured the fort at the point of the bayonet. Six hundred prisoners were captured.

Tryon's raids in Connecticut.—During the summer of 1779, at Clinton's orders, the British made raids into Connecticut, and burned several towns. This was done to draw a part of Washington's army from their position near New York city.

Attack on Augusta. Siege of Savannah, 1779.—Washington sent General Lincoln to command the troops at the South. He made an unsuccessful attempt to re-capture Augusta.

In Sept., 1779, Lincoln, assisted by the French under d'Estaing, besieged Savannah. After a siege of two weeks, an assault was made (Oct. 9) in which the Americans were defeated with the loss of a thousand men. Count Pulaski was mortally wounded, and Sergeant Jasper was killed. (Learn the story of Sergeant Jasper in 1776.)

Clark's campaign.—The British held the land between the Ohio river and the Great Lakes. Colonel Hamilton, in command at Detroit, incited and encouraged the Indians to drive out American settlers and to make attacks along the frontier. Patrick Henry, gov-

ernor of Virginia, sent Colonel Clark with a company of two hundred men to subdue the Indians. In two vigorous campaigns, 1778 and 1779, several important places were captured and the whole section was claimed for Virginia. These campaigns gave the Americans a territory which was of the greatest value after the war.

Naval exploits.—As early as 1775, the Americans fitted out several vessels to coast about New England as privateers, vessels fitted out at private expense, and commissioned by the government, to prey upon the commerce of the enemy. During the revolution, more than eight hundred British vessels, including one hundred and two war ships, were taken by American privateers and the little American navy.

Captain Paul Jones, the greatest naval hero of the revolution, secured a fleet and coasted about the British Isles. In 1778, he destroyed several vessels, set fire to the ships in an English port, and escaped safely to France. In September, 1779, he attacked two British war-ships in the North sea, both of which he captured after a severe engagement.



JOHN PAUL JONES, 1747-1792

Inactivity of British and American armies in 1779.—For two years after the capture of Stony Point by Anthony Wayne, very little was accomplished. There were various reasons for this inactivity. England was at war with France and Spain, there was trouble with Holland, and the French fleet threatened

the West Indies. Many soldiers who might otherwise have been sent to America were required for the defense of distant British colonies.

The Americans were still very weak in resources. The Articles of Confederation had not been ratified, and there was but little power to enlist soldiers or levy taxes. Congress could furnish no money but the continental currency, which was almost worthless.

1780. Siege of Charleston, South Carolina.—

In April, 1780, the British began the siege of Charleston, Lincoln's headquarters. On May 12, after a siege of forty days, Lincoln and his army of five thousand men surrendered.

Clinton, who had taken part in the siege, returned to New York, leaving Cornwallis with seven thousand men to continue the war at the South. Cornwallis sent marauding expeditions over the whole State.

Battle of Camden, Aug. 16, 1780.—After the capture of Lincoln's army, another force of two thousand men, commanded by Gates, was sent to South Carolina. Cornwallis held an important position at Camden. In a battle at that place, Aug. 16, 1780, the American army was nearly destroyed. DeKalb was mortally wounded. Gates showed great cowardice, and the remnant of his army was so scattered that it could not be gathered together.

Partisan corps.—After the surrender of Lincoln and the defeat at Camden, there was for a while no organized American army at the South. There was a good deal of fighting, however, by the partisan corps, bands of patriots, gathered together by Marion, Sumter, Pickens, and Lee.

These men met wherever they could and made raids

upon the British, rescuing prisoners, capturing supplies, and sometimes attacking British garrisons. Through the efforts of these brave men, the British were held in check and finally driven out of the South.

Arnold's treason. Discovered in Sept., 1780.

—One of the saddest events of the revolution was the treason of Benedict Arnold, an officer who had, early in the war, shown himself both brave and skilful.

When the British evacuated Philadelphia in 1778,



BENEDICT ARNOLD, 1741-1801

Arnold still suffering from a wound, received at Saratoga, was placed in command of that city. There he married a tory lady, led a life of extravagance and luxury, and, by his conduct, became very unpopular with the Americans. Reproved by Washington, he grew bitter and resentful, and planned

to take revenge. At his own request, he was placed in



JOHN ANDRÉ, 1751-1780

command of West Point, then the most important position held by the American army. He opened correspondence with Clinton for the betrayal of West Point to the British. Sept. 21, 1780, André, the British agent in the transaction, held a secret conference with Arnold at West Point. Re-



CAPTURE OF MAJOR ANDRÉ

turning to New York he was stopped at Tarrytown by three militiamen (Paulding, Williams, and Van Wirt). On his person they found Arnold's written plans for giving up West Point. André was tried by court-martial and, on Oct. 2, was hanged as a spy. Arnold escaped to the British lines, where he received \$30,000 and a commission in the British army. He died in London, in 1801, despised by everybody.

Battle of King's mountain, Oct. 7, 1780.—By the summer of 1780, the British were in possession of Georgia and South Carolina. In September, Major Ferguson, with a force of 1,100 men, was sent to capture a body of patriots in the western part of South Carolina. An independent band of 1,000 American riflemen attacked Ferguson, who had taken position at King's mountain. The Americans were repulsed three times, but, in a fourth assault, they killed or captured the whole British force. The battle lasted one hour.

This first British repulse in the South seriously crippled Cornwallis and gave the Americans time to rally for further service.

French soldiers.—In July, 1780, 6,000 French soldiers, under Rochambeau, landed on Rhode Island.

Washington's winter quarters, 1780-1781, were at Morristown, where the soldiers experienced the same hardships as at Valley Forge.

General Greene's campaign in the South.—In December, 1780, General Greene had taken command at the South. He had about two thousand men, of whom only eight hundred were fit for duty. Greene divided

this little army into two parts. One division, co-operating with Marion, was to get between Cornwallis and the coast; the other, under General Morgan, was to threaten Augusta and Ninety-Six, towards the west.



NATHANIAL GREENE, 1742-1786

vided his army and sent General Tarleton with 1,100 men against Morgan. At Cowpens, near King's mountain, a battle was fought in which the Americans, with 900 men defeated Tarleton, who lost more than two-thirds of his army, while the Americans lost about 75 men.

This battle, like the battle of King's mountain, greatly crippled Cornwallis.

Greene's retreat to Virginia, Feb., 1781.—After the Battle of Cowpens, Morgan rejoined Greene. The Americans were too weak to risk a battle with Cornwallis and decided to retreat across North Carolina to Virginia. Cornwallis perceived Greene's plan and hoped by rapid marches to cut off the retreat. A race for the Dan river followed, and the Americans won.

Battle of Guilford Court House (Greensboro), March 15, 1781.—Having rested his men and received re-inforcements in Virginia, Greene re-crossed the river and fought a battle at Guilford Court House, March 15, 1781. The British defeated the Americans, but Cornwallis lost one-third of his men.

With an exhausted army, two hundred miles from

his base of supplies, Cornwallis could not follow Greene, and retreated to Wilmington where he had a small quantity of stores.

To the surprise of Cornwallis, Greene now moved to South Carolina, where he had several engagements with the British who had been left there.

Hobkirk's Hill, April 25, 1781.—At Hobkirk's Hill, two miles north of Camden, Greene attacked Lord Rawdon's army. The British won the battle, but as a part of Greene's force could cut their communication with Charleston Lord Rawdon decided to retreat, and the Americans entered Camden May 10, 1781.

Battle of Eutaw Springs, Sept. 8, 1781.—The last obstinate battle of Greene's campaign in the South was fought at Eutaw Springs, Sept. 8, 1781. Both sides claimed the victory, but the British soon retreated to Charleston.

This campaign lasted about nine months. By the help of the partisan leaders, Greene had practically regained the Carolinas. The cities of Savannah and Charleston were however still held by the British.

Greene never gained a victory in the South, but, like Washington in Pennsylvania, he worried and exhausted the enemy and made it impossible for Cornwallis to have an open battle.

In a letter to Washington, Greene once wrote: "We fight, get beat, and fight again."

Arnold and Cornwallis in Virginia.—During Greene's campaign in the South, Benedict Arnold had set fire to Richmond and destroyed much property in that vicinity.

Early in May, 1781, Cornwallis moved his army to Petersburg and took command of the British forces in Virginia. Arnold was sent to New York, but Cornwallis continued the plundering and marauding expeditions. More than \$15,000,000 worth of property was destroyed there during May and June. Lafayette, with three thousand men, was at Richmond. For several weeks Cornwallis tried to force him into battle. Then Lafayette, reinforced by Wayne and Steuben, turned the tables and forced Cornwallis to retreat towards the coast.

In July, Cornwallis entered and fortified Yorktown, having about seven thousand men in his command. From this position, he thought he could easily transport his men to New York, if necessary, or secure help for himself from outside.

Washington's plans.—Washington's original plan had been to call the French fleet to New York and make a combined land and naval attack upon that city. DeGrasse objected to this plan and sent word to Washington that the fleet would go to Chesapeake Bay. Then Washington decided to strike Cornwallis at Yorktown, instead of Clinton at New York.

In August, Washington moved Rochambeau's army from Newport, across Connecticut, to the Hudson river.

Leaving four thousand men under Heath at West Point, on August 19, 1781, Washington marched southward with 6,000 French and American soldiers.

When the men reached Philadelphia, they demanded pay. Again Robert Morris proved to be the "friend in need". He borrowed \$20,000 for Washington, and,

at the same time, the French government sent \$500,000 to Boston.

Clinton fully expected an attack upon New York city, but by the time the Americans had reached Philadelphia he understood their plans and knew it was too late to save Cornwallis. However, Clinton's ships made an unsuccessful attack on the fleet in Chesapeake Bay, and then withdrew. Arnold was sent to Connecticut, where he finished his military career in America by burning New London, an act of disgraceful and useless cruelty.

Siege of Yorktown.—After Washington joined Lafayette, their united forces numbered 9,000 Americans and 7,000 French. The French fleet occupied Chesapeake Bay and cut off Cornwallis from help or escape in that direction.

The siege began Sept. 30, 1781, and lasted about three weeks.

Surrender of Cornwallis, Oct. 19, 1781.—Com-



CHARLES MARQUIS CORNWALLIS
1738-1805

pletely shut in between a hostile fleet and a hostile army, and with half his men sick or wounded, Cornwallis saw no hope of escape, and, on Oct. 19, 1781, surrendered his entire army, just four years after the surrender of Burgoyne at Saratoga.

The army was drawn up in two columns, the French on one side and the Americans on the other. Seven thousand British soldiers marched between these lines

and laid down their arms. Cornwallis pretended to be sick and sent his sword by General O'Hara.

Results of the surrender of Cornwallis.—The



GEORGE III., 1738-1820
REIGNED 1760-1820

whole country was filled with joy. When the news was carried to Philadelphia, congress met and marched in a body to church to give thanks. The British gave up all hope of subduing America. At the opening of Parliament in 1782, the king, George III., announced that he was ready to acknowledge

the independence of the United States.

The surrender of Cornwallis practically ended the war, though fighting on the frontier continued for some time.

Washington at Newburgh.—After the surrender of Cornwallis, Washington returned to the Hudson and made his headquarters at Newburgh. On April 19, 1783, just eight years after the battle of Lexington, Washington issued a proclamation, declaring the war of the revolution at an end.

Treaty of peace, Paris, 1783.—A final treaty of peace between great Britain and the United States was signed at Paris, Sept. 3, 1783. (1) Great Britain acknowledged the independence of the United States. (2) The boundaries of the United States on the north and east were made the same as at present; on the south as far as the northern boundary of Florida; on the west they extended to the Mississippi. (3) Free

navigaion of the Mississippi and the Great Lakes, and an interest in the fisheries of Newfoundland, were given to the United States. (4) England retained Canada and the control of the St. Lawrence. (5) England gave Florida to Spain. (6) The English demanded that compensation be given to the Tories for their losses during the war.



JOHN JAY, 1745-1829

At this time, our commissioners, Franklin, Jay, and Adams, won a great diplomatic victory. Through the efforts of George Rogers Clark, in 1778 and 1779, the Americans had conquered and settled the land west of the Alleghanies and north of the Ohio. In deciding the terms of the treaty, at Paris, both the French and the English thought the Americans should give up this land to the English. Our commissioners refused consent to this demand, and our western boundary was made to extend to the Mississippi.

Cost of the war.—England lost 50,000 men and spent \$610,000,000. The United States lost 40,000 men and spent about \$135,000,000.

After the treaty of Paris, the army was disbanded and Washington returned to Mount Vernon.

The condition of the country at the close of the revolution.—The British held Charleston for more than a year, and New York and Savannah for

about two years, after the surrender of Cornwallis. British garrisons remained in northern and western posts until the summer of 1796. The British justified their course in this matter by claiming that the Americans had not kept their treaty obligations in regard to debts due Tories and British merchants. Our commissioners at Paris had agreed to urge the States to discharge these obligations.

During the war our commerce had been nearly destroyed, and all kinds of business had been neglected. The American army was in some cases in open rebellion. The treasury was empty, and most of the soldiers had received no pay for months.

Articles of confederation.—In 1776, the continental congress appointed a committee to prepare articles of confederation, or a constitution, for the general government of the thirteen States. Although they were adopted by congress in 1777, the articles of confederation had not been ratified by all of the States until 1781, near the close of the revolution.

Seven of the States claimed title to western lands. New Jersey, Delaware, and Maryland refused to sign the articles of confederation until these States should give up these lands to the general government. This was not done until March 1, 1781, when the confederation was completed.

Some of the provisions of the articles of confederation were as follows: (1) A firm league of friendship was established between the States. (2) Each State was to have one vote in congress, regardless of the number of representatives it might send. (3) Congress was given power to declare war and to make

treaties. (4) Matters relating to commerce, taxes, and revenue were left to the several States.

When put in force, the articles of confederation were found to be weak and inefficient. The States, distrustful of congress, kept the power in their own hands. Congress could borrow money, declare war, make peace, and negotiate treaties, but it could not enforce any law nor compel any State to levy taxes. There was no head, no central power in the government, and this was a fatal weakness.

Shays's rebellion occurred in Massachusetts in 1786. The people, particularly the farmers, were very poor and were greatly in debt. There was no money and they could not sell their produce. Many debtors were sued and imprisoned. At last Daniel Shays, who had been a captain in the continental army, at the head of two thousand angry farmers, marched to Springfield and Worcester, surrounded the court houses, and put a stop to law suits for debt. The rebellion was put down by the militia and Shays fled to New Hampshire.

This event caused great anxiety, because the same distressing conditions existed in other States and might be followed by similar disturbances.

Critical period of American history.—The time between 1783 and 1789 has been called the critical period of American history. We had no practical government, no army, and no general organization. The country was deeply in debt, and there was no money to keep us from bankruptcy. Our commerce had been nearly destroyed. The States were jealous

of one another, and quarrelled over the ownership of land and over commercial affairs.

The Tories, or Loyalists, who had remained in the country had received such ungenerous treatment that many of them removed to Canada or to the West Indies.

During the revolution the States had stood by each other. For a while afterward, there seemed no common sentiment nor interest to keep them together.

The ordinance of 1787.—As soon as congress had received the deeds of the western lands, ceded by the States, it divided the land into sections and fixed the price for its sale. Large numbers of people at once moved to "the West" and it became necessary to provide a form of government for them.

The ordinance of 1787 was a body of laws passed by congress for the government of the Northwest Territory. It granted settlers religious freedom, encouraged the establishment of schools, and forbade the holding of slaves in that territory, but provided for the return of fugitive slaves that might be found there. Arrangements were made for dividing the territory into five States.

Convention of 1787. Constitutional convention.—The best men in the land felt the need of a stronger national government. In 1787, a convention was called to revise the articles of confederation. This convention, which consisted of delegates from all the States except Rhode Island, met at Philadelphia, May 25, 1787, and continued in secret session for four months, with Washington presiding. An entirely new constitution was adopted Sept. 17, 1787.

When the new constitution had been ratified by nine

States (June, 1788), arrangements were at once made for organizing a new government under its provisions. It went into full operation when George Washington, on April 30, 1789, became the first president of the United States.

The revolution had made us an independent people. The constitution made us a united people.

The constitution gave the nation a head, a president, to execute the laws. It gave congress power to raise money to carry on the government. It gave all citizens equal rights and established the supreme court of the United States.

Amendments.—During Washington's administration ten amendments called "A Bill of Rights" were added to the constitution. During the second administration the eleventh amendment limited the power of the supreme court. Three amendments were the outcome of the civil war. With these modifications the original constitution is still the revered law of the land.

Author of the constitution.—The constitution was mainly the work of James Madison. The five most prominent men of that time were George Washington, James Madison, Alexander Hamilton, Thomas Jefferson, and John Marshall.



JAMES MADISON, 1751-1836
PRESIDENT, 1809-1817

Compromises of the constitution.—(1) A part of the delegates believed in

a strong central government. Others wished to give



ALEXANDER HAMILTON, 1757-1804



JOHN MARSHALL, 1755-1835

as little power as possible to congress. To meet these differences, there was a definite assignment of the duties of congress and of other departments of the federal government. Certain other duties were reserved for the State governments. Among other provisions, congress was to regulate foreign commerce, levy taxes, control the militia, declare war and enact federal laws.

(2) Another difficulty was in regard to State representation in congress. The large States wished for representation based on population. The small States demanded equal representation for each State. A compromise, proposed by Franklin, arranged that congress should consist of two bodies, a senate, where each State should have equal representation, and a house of representatives, where representation should be based upon population.

(3) The slave States then wished the slaves to be counted in apportioning the representation of those States. Free States opposed this. It was finally

settled that five slaves should be counted as three white men.

(4) The commercial States wished to have free exports. Planters were opposed. Free States wished to stop the importation of slaves. It was agreed that importation of slaves should not be prohibited by congress until 1808, and that exports should never be taxed.

PROVISIONS OF THE CONSTITUTION

The legislative department.—The law-making power lies in congress, which consists of two bodies, the senate and the house of representatives.

The house of representatives.—Representatives are chosen directly by the people and serve two years. A representative must be over 25 years old, a citizen of the United States for 7 years, and must live in the State which he represents. The number of representatives depends on the population of the State. This body chooses its own speaker, and all its other officers. It has the sole power of impeachment. All revenue bills originate in the house of representatives.

The senate, or upper house, is composed of 2 senators from each State, chosen by the State legislatures for 6 years. A senator must be over 30 years old, 9 years a citizen of the United States, and must live in the State from which he is chosen. The presiding officer of the senate is the vice-president of the United States. The senate chooses its other officers, and constitutes the court which holds trial for impeachment.

The executive department.—The president is the executor of all laws passed by congress. He has power to veto any bill. If, however, two-thirds of the members of both houses approve, it may become a law

without the president's signature. The president and vice-president must be natural-born citizens of the United States, and must have reached the age of 35 years. The president and vice-president are elected every 4 years by electors chosen by the people of the States. The president is commander-in-chief of the army and navy.

The judicial department.—The judicial power of the United States, which interprets laws and the constitution, is vested in a supreme court and in inferior courts established by congress. Members hold office for life, or during good behavior, and are appointed by the president, with the consent of the senate. The members of the supreme court are a chief justice and 8 associate justices. The decisions of this court are final.

The constitution provides that congress shall not interfere with religious freedom, nor with freedom of speech, nor with freedom of the press.

The regulation of morals and public conduct and ordinary business is left to the States.

General affairs of the country relating to finance, foreign commerce, treaties with foreign nations, and matters of war or peace are regulated by the federal government.

Trial by jury is provided for in the constitution.

Political parties.—When the Constitution was presented to the States for consideration the people were divided on the question of its adoption, and so arose our first political parties. Those who favored the Constitution were called federalists; those opposed, anti-federalists. Washington, Hamilton, and John Marshall were federalists. Thomas Jefferson, Patrick Henry, and Samuel Adams were anti-federalists.

BIOGRAPHICAL NOTES

MEN OF REVOLUTIONARY TIMES

John Adams (see page 110) was a patriot leader in Massachusetts before the revolution, and a delegate to the first continental congress. He was one of the committee appointed to draw up the Declaration of Independence, and was one of its signers. In 1778, he was one of our commissioners to France. After our national government had been established, he was vice-president with Washington for eight years. He was the second president of the United States.

Samuel Adams.—Samuel Adams was an able leader among those who opposed the stamp act and other measures of Parliament. He organized the committee of correspondence and was a member of the first continental congress. He was called “The Father of the Revolution”. With John Hancock, he was outlawed by General Gage in 1775.

Ethan Allen.—Ethan Allen, with a company of “Green Mountain Boys”, surprised and captured Fort Ticonderoga May 10, 1775.

Major John Andre (see page 129) was the British agent with whom Arnold made arrangements for the surrender of West Point in 1780. After a conference with Arnold, André was captured near Tarrytown, tried as a spy, found guilty, and hanged.

Benedict Arnold (see page 129). During the early part of the revolutionary war, Benedict Arnold was a brave and distinguished officer. After 1778, he became jealous and dissatisfied. In 1780, he resolved to betray his country to the British. His plans were discovered through the capture of Major André. Arnold escaped to the British lines, received thirty thousand dollars, and a commission in the British army,—and the contempt of everybody.

Colonel Isaac Barre served with Wolfe in the French and Indian war. At Quebec, he received a wound from which he became blind. In 1761, he entered Parliament, where, for many years, he nobly defended the rights of the American colonists.

Gen. Sir John Burgoyne (see page 118), commanded the British army that invaded New York, from Canada, in 1777.

George Rogers Clark.—General George Rogers Clark conquered the Northwest Territory from England in 1778 and 1779.

Sir Henry Clinton (see page 124) was one of the leading British officers in America during the revolutionary war. He fought at Bunker Hill, Fort Moultrie, and Long Island. After the evacuation of Philadelphia by the British, in 1778, he commanded the British forces in New York city.

Thomas Conway.—General Conway, of the continental army, was engaged in a conspiracy, with Gates and others, to deprive Washington of his command.

Lord Cornwallis (see page 135) was one of the most skilful officers of the British army during the revolu-

tionary war. He was with Howe in the battle of Long Island, and pursued Washington across New Jersey. At Princeton, he was out-generaled by Washington. Cornwallis commanded the British forces at the South. He surrendered to the Americans at Yorktown.

Count DeGrasse, with a French fleet, came to America in 1781. He brought 24 ships to Chesapeake Bay to blockade the James and York rivers, thus assisting Washington and Lafayette in the siege of Yorktown.

Baron DeKalb was a French nobleman who came to America with Lafayette in 1777. He was appointed major-general in the continental army. He was mortally wounded at the battle of Camden in 1780.

D'Estaing (see page 123), a French officer, was sent to America with a strong naval force to assist the patriots. He was engaged in the unsuccessful siege of Savannah in 1779.

Major Ferguson was an officer in the army of Cornwallis. He commanded the Tories in the western part of the Carolinas. He was defeated and killed at King's Mountain in 1780.

Benjamin Franklin (see page 96) proposed a plan of union for the colonies as early as 1754. He was one of the committee to draw up the Declaration of Independence and was one of its signers. He was our chief agent at Paris when the French made the treaty of alliance with the Americans in 1778. He was a delegate to the convention of 1787 which met to revise the Articles of Confederation.

Franklin made important discoveries in science.

He proved that lightning and electricity are identical.

General Frazier was a British officer, conspicuous for his bravery. He was killed at Saratoga in 1777.

General Thomas Gage was a British officer in the French and Indian war. Before the revolution he was commander-in-chief of the British forces in North America. In 1774, he was made governor of Massachusetts. He was superseded by General Howe.

General Horatio Gates (see page 119) served in the French and Indian war. When Burgoyne invaded New York, in 1777, Gates superseded General Schuyler in northern New York. At Saratoga, Gates stayed in his tent while Arnold won the victory. He was one of those who conspired against Washington. At the battle of Camden he showed great cowardice.

General Nathaniel Greene (see page 132) was a brigadier-general in the continental army. He took part in the battle of Brandywine. In 1780, he was a member of the court which condemned André. After the battle of Camden, Greene was commander of the little American army in the South. He became famous for his successful retreats.

Nathan Hale, after the battle of Long Island and the escape of the Americans, visited the camp of the British to gain information in regard to their movements. He was recognized by a Tory, arrested, and hanged as a spy. His last words were, "I regret only that I have but one life to give to my country."

Alexander Hamilton (see page 142), served in the continental army at White Plains, Trenton, Princeton, and Yorktown. He was one of Washington's staff-

officers, his personal friend, and adviser. Hamilton was largely instrumental in the adoption of the Constitution. He was Washington's secretary of the treasury. His wise policy established the credit of the United States upon a firm foundation. Hamilton was killed in a duel with Aaron Burr.

John Hancock was a wealthy and popular merchant of Boston. He was one of the active Sons of Liberty, and was president of the provincial congress. He was a delegate to the first continental congress in 1774, and president of the second continental congress. With Samuel Adams, he was outlawed by General Gage in 1775. His name is conspicuous among the signers of the Declaration of Independence. John Hancock was governor of Massachusetts from 1780 to 1785.

Patrick Henry was a lawyer and a member of the Virginia House of Burgesses. He became famous for his eloquent speeches in opposition to the stamp act and other oppressive laws passed by the British Parliament. He was a delegate to the first continental congress, and was the first governor of Virginia after the Declaration of Independence.

General Nicholas Herkimer (see page 120) served in the French and Indian war. He was one of the committee of safety. In 1775, he commanded a company of militia. Mortally wounded at the battle of Oriskany, he ordered his men to place him against a tree. In this position, he directed the battle and his men held their ground.

General William Howe (see page 112) succeeded Gage as commander of the British forces at Boston in

1775. After the evacuation of Boston, Howe went to Halifax, but in the summer of 1776, he came to Staten Island. There he made his headquarters and began the campaign near New York. In 1777, he captured Philadelphia.

Sir Henry Clinton succeeded Howe in 1778.

Sergeant Jasper.—When the British made their first attack upon Charleston, June 28, 1776, the continental flag was cut down by a cannon ball, and fell outside the fort. Sergeant Jasper leaped over the fortification, rescued the flag, and returned it to its place. He modestly refused promotion for this act of bravery.

He was killed in an engagement at Savannah in 1779.

Thomas Jefferson (see page 110) was a member of the Virginia House of Burgesses from 1769 to 1775. He was one of the committee of correspondence and a member of the second continental congress. He wrote the Declaration of Independence. He was governor of Virginia from 1779 to 1781. He was afterward a great democratic leader and an influential member of congress. He was vice-president with John Adams, whom he succeeded as president.

Captain John Paul Jones (see page 127) was the greatest naval hero of the revolution. With a small fleet, he coasted about the British Isles. His most noted exploit occurred in the North Sea, when he attacked two British war ships, and, after a desperate fight, captured both of them.

General Henry Knox was an engineer, and an artillery officer during the revolutionary war. He

brought cannon from Ticonderoga, across Massachusetts, to be used in the siege of Boston. General Knox was chief commander of artillery during the war. He was secretary of war before and after Washington became president of the United States.

Thaddeus Kosciusko (see page 122) was a Polish nobleman who arrived in America in 1776 and entered the continental army as colonel of engineers. He planned the American fortifications at Saratoga in 1777, constructed the defences at West Point, and served with Greene at the South.

Marquis de Lafayette (see page 117) was a French nobleman who became so interested in the cause of American liberty that he fitted out a ship at his own expense, came to America early in 1777, and offered his services to congress as a volunteer without pay. He freely spent his own money in clothing the men under his command. He was made major-general in the continental army when only 21 years old. He was wounded at Brandywine, helped to defeat Howe at Monmouth, and assisted in the siege of Yorktown. In 1824, he visited America as guest of the nation. Congress gave him \$200,000 and a township of land in return for his services in the revolutionary war.

General Charles Lee (see page 114) was a selfish and boastful officer of the continental army. He desired the position of commander-in-chief and was one of those engaged in the Conway Cabal. He disobeyed Washington on various occasions and nearly lost the battle at Monmouth, after which he was dismissed from the army.

Papers recently made public prove that he was a traitor.

Richard Henry Lee offered in congress the famous resolution which declared the English-American colonies to be free and independent States.

General Benjamin Lincoln an officer of the continental army, assisted by the French fleet, made an unsuccessful attempt to recapture Savannah in 1779. In 1780, Clinton made an attack upon Charleston, Lincoln's headquarters. After a siege of six weeks Lincoln and his army surrendered.

Robert R. Livingston (see page 111) of New York was a member of the second continental congress. He was one of the committee to draft the Declaration of Independence.

James Madison (see page 141) was delegate to the convention of 1787, and drafted the principal parts of the constitution. He was a member of the Virginia convention that ratified the constitution. Madison was one of the distinguished statesmen who aided in the establishment of our government. He offered in congress the ten amendments to the constitution, adopted in 1791. He was secretary of state during Jefferson's administration and, in 1808, was elected president by the democratic party. The war of 1812 occurred during his administration.

Francis Marion fought in the French and Indian war. During the revolution, he was one of the heroes who carried on partisan warfare at the South and helped to drive the British out of the Carolinas. He was called "the Swamp Fox".

General Hugh Mercer accompanied Washington in his retreat across New Jersey, fought at Trenton, and was mortally wounded at Princeton.

General Richard Montgomery (see page 108)



fought in the French and Indian war. In 1775, he was commissioned brigadier-general in the continental army. The same year he was sent on an expedition to Canada. After several successful operations in Canada, he was killed at Quebec Dec. 31, 1775.

RICHARD MONTGOMERY, 1736-1775

Daniel Morgan (see page 108) commanded the famous riflemen of the revolutionary war. He accompanied Arnold to Quebec in 1775, and helped to defeat Burgoyne in 1777. He was commissioned brigadier-general and joined Greene at the South. He gained the victory at Cowpens in 1781. After the revolutionary war he was a member of congress.

Robert Morris (see page 115) was the great financier of the revolution. He was a leading merchant and banker in Philadelphia. He was a member of the second continental congress and signed the Declaration of Independence.

Just after the battle of Trenton, when Washington was in great need of money, Robert Morris borrowed \$50,000 for the government. In 1780, Morris and

other citizens of Philadelphia sent three million rations to the army. When Washington was preparing for the siege of Yorktown, Morris issued his own notes for more than a million dollars to get supplies for that undertaking.

General Willam Moultrie built the fort on Sullivan's Island in Charleston harbor. He gained his fame by a vigorous defence of that fort in 1776. He was at Charleston when General Lincoln surrendered in 1780. He was exchanged for Burgoyne in 1782.

James Otis was a zealous patriot and a gifted orator. He was a leader in the Massachusetts assembly. He made a vigorous speech against "Writs of Assistance", in which he declared that "Taxation without representation is tyranny".

Andrew Pickens was an American general in the revolutionary war. He was one of the partisan leaders at the South.

Major Pitcairn commanded the British expedition to Lexington and Concord April 19, 1775.

Mollie Pitcher.—During the battle of Monmouth, an artilleryman was killed at his post. His wife, Mollie Pitcher, took her husband's place, and with skill and courage performed his work until the battle was ended. Congress voted her a sergeant's commission with half-pay through life.

Colonel William Prescott was an American patriot, distinguished for his bravery in the revolution. After the battle of Lexington, he raised a regiment of

minute men and marched to Cambridge. He had charge of the expedition to fortify Bunker Hill. During the battle next day he showed the greatest bravery. He was present at the battle of Saratoga, and served in the army two years.

Count Pulaski, a Polish nobleman, came to America in the summer of 1777 and joined the army under Washington. He fought at Brandywine and Germantown. He commanded a body of cavalry, called "Pulaski's Legion". In 1779, the French and Americans attacked Savannah and Pulaski received a mortal wound.

General Israel Putnam (see page 111) of Connecticut served in the army throughout the French and Indian war.

When he heard about the battle of Lexington, he left his plough in the furrow and started for Boston. When Washington took command of the continental army, Putnam received a commission as major-general. He held places of great responsibility throughout the revolutionary war. He assisted in the siege of Boston, commanded the continental forces in the battle of Long Island, erected fortifications for the defence of Philadelphia, and held an important position on the Highlands of the Hudson.

Rahl, or Rall was the commander of the Hessians stationed at Trenton. He was mortally wounded in the battle of Trenton.

Paul Revere was an American patriot born in Bos-

ton, of Huguenot descent. He was one of those who destroyed the tea in Boston harbor. He was sent as a messenger to warn the people of Lexington and Concord of the approach of the British, and to tell John Hancock and Samuel Adams of their danger.

Count de Rochambeau (see page 123) with 6,000 French soldiers arrived in America in the summer of 1780 and joined the American army on the Hudson. He led his army to Virginia and assisted in the siege of Yorktown in 1781. Rochambeau loaned the Americans \$20,000.

General St. Leger (see page 120) commanded one division of the British army in Burgoyne's invasion. He was driven out of the Mohawk Valley.

General Philip Schuyler (see page 119) commanded the continental troops in northern New York when Burgoyne commenced his invasion. He was superseded by Gates.

Daniel Shays was a captain in the continental army. He was commander of a company of Massachusetts farmers who were poor and greatly in debt. They gathered together and marched to the court houses in Worcester and Springfield to prevent the courts from sitting. The insurrection was put down by the militia.

Roger Sherman was a delegate to the first continental congress, and a member of the second continental congress. He was one of the committee to draw up the Declaration of Independence. He was

an influential member of the convention of 1787, and urged the adoption of the constitution by the State convention of Connecticut.

General John Stark (see page 119) served in the French and Indian war. He was a member of the committee of safety at the beginning of the revolution. He fought at Bunker Hill, Trenton, and Princeton. At Bennington, he defeated and captured the British forces under Colonel Baum.

Baron Steuben (see page 122), a Prussian nobleman, came to America in November, 1777, and joined Washington at Valley Forge, where he spent the winter drilling and disciplining the continental soldiers. He had been appointed inspector-general with the rank of major-general. He was present at the battle of Monmouth in June, 1778. In 1780, he was in command of the American forces in Virginia. He managed the defences at Yorktown.

General Stirling (see page 112) served in the continental army at the siege of Boston, and in the battles of Long Island, Trenton, and Princeton.

General Sullivan (see page 112) of the continental army, assisted in the siege of Boston, and served at Long Island, Trenton, Brandywine, and Germantown. In 1779, he marched against the Indians of New York to punish them for the massacres in the Wyoming and Cherry Valleys.

General Thomas Sumter served in the French and Indian war. In 1776 he was commissioned lieutenant-colonel of the South Carolina regiment of rifle-

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men. He was one of the partisan leaders at the South during the last years of the revolutionary war.

General Tarleton was a British officer in the revolutionary war. He fought at the South and was among those who surrendered at Yorktown.

Seth Warner, of Bennington, accompanied Ethan Allen to Ticonderoga in 1775. The next day after Allen had captured Ticonderoga, Seth Warner took Crown Point.

General Joseph Warren was a distinguished physician in Boston before the revolutionary war. He was an active patriot, and chairman of the committee of safety. He was commissioned major-general in June, 1775. He fought as a volunteer at Bunker Hill, although he was offered the command. He was killed just as the battle ended.

General George Washington (see page 106) began his military career early in the French and Indian war. At Fort Duquesne he saved the British army from complete destruction. He was delegate to both the first and second continental congresses. In May, 1775, he was appointed commander-in-chief of the continental army. For eight years, under most discouraging circumstances, he proved himself a prudent and skilful leader.

He presided at the convention of 1787. When the plan of government had been formed, Washington was elected president by unanimous vote of all the people. After serving two terms, he retired to Mount Vernon. He has been called "The Father of his Country", and "The Greatest American".

General Anthony Wayne (see page 126), called "Mad Anthony" for his reckless bravery, took an active part in the revolution, distinguishing himself at Brandywine, Germantown, and Monmouth. His capture of Stony Point has always been considered one of the brilliant achievements of the revolutionary war.

EVENTS CONNECTED WITH THE REVOLU- TIONARY WAR

- 1765. The Stamp Act.
- 1767. Tax imposed on tea.
- 1768. Arrival of British troops in Boston, Sept. 27.
- 1770. Boston Massacre, March 5.
- 1773. Boston Tea Party, Dec. 16.
- 1774. Boston Port Bill, March 31.
First Continental Congress met Sept. 5.
- 1775. Battle of Lexington, April 19.
Second Continental Congress met May 10.
Capture of Ticonderoga by Ethan Allen, May 10.
Washington elected commander-in-chief, June 15.
Battle of Bunker Hill, June 17.
Washington took command of the army, July 3.
Attack on Quebec, Dec. 31.
- 1775-6. Siege of Boston.
- 1776. Evacuation of Boston by the British, March 17.
Attack on Fort Moultrie, June 28.
Declaration of Independence, July 4.
Battle of Long Island, Aug. 27.
Battle of White Plains, Oct. 28.
Retreat through New Jersey, Nov. 19-Dec. 6.
Battle of Trenton, Dec. 25.

1777. Robert Morris raises money for the patriots,
Jan. 1. Battle of Princeton, Jan 3.
Washington's winter camp at Morristown
Heights.
Adoption by Congress of the "stars and
stripes", June 14.
- (a) Burgoyne's Campaign.
British invade New York, June.
Capture of Ticonderoga by the British, July 5.
Battle of Oriskany, Aug. 6.
Battle of Bennington, Aug. 16.
Flight of St. Leger from Fort Stanwix, Aug.
22.
First Battle of Saratoga, Sept. 19.
Second Battle of Saratoga, Oct. 7.
Surrender of Burgoyne, Oct. 17.
- (b) Pennsylvania Campaign.
Battle of Brandywine, Sept. 11.
Capture of Philadelphia by the British,
Sept. 26.
Capture of Forts Mercer and Mifflin.
Battle of Germantown, Oct. 4.
Washington's winter camp at Valley Forge
(1777-8).
Arrival of Baron Steuben, December.
1778. Alliance with France, Feb.
England sent peace commissioners to America.
British evacuated Philadelphia.
Battle of Monmouth, June 28.
The French fleet arrive at Newport, July 29.
British and Indian raids in the Wyoming and
Cherry Valleys.

- The British capture Savannah, Dec. 29.
Washington's winter camp at Morristown
with his lines extending to the Highlands
of the Hudson.
1779. The British captured Augusta, Ga.
Anthony Wayne captured Stony Point, July
15.
Sullivan's expedition into the Mohawk Valley.
British raids in Connecticut.
Paul Jones's victory, Sept. 23.
Unsuccessful attack upon Savannah by the
Americans, Oct. 9.
- 1778-9. Conquest of Northwest Territory by George
Rogers Clark.
1780. American surrender at Charleston, May 12.
Rochambeau's arrival in America with French
troops, July.
Battle of Camden, Aug. 16.
Arnold's Treason, discovered in September.
Execution of André, Oct. 2.
Battle of King's Mountain, Oct. 7.
Washington's winter camp at Morristown.
1781. Battle of Cowpens, Jan. 17.
Articles of Confederation ratified, March 1.
Greene's famous retreat to Virginia, Feb.
Battle of Guilford Court House, March 15.
Battle of Eutaw Springs, Sept. 8.
Siege of Yorktown, Sept. 26-Oct. 19.
Surrender of Cornwallis, Oct. 19.
1782. Charleston, S. C., evacuated by the British,
Dec. 14.
Savannah evacuated by the British, July 11.

1783. Treaty of Peace signed at Paris, Sept. 3.
New York evacuated by the British, Nov. 25.
1787. Shays's Rebellion in Mass.
Ordinance of 1787.
Convention of 1787, May 14 to Sept. 17.
1788. Constitution adopted by eleven States.
1789. Inauguration of Washington, April 30.

QUESTIONS FOR STUDY

THE MOUND BUILDERS

1. Who were the Mound Builders?
2. Where did they live, and whence did they come?
3. Describe the Mounds, giving form, size, contents, uses, etc.

THE NORTHMEN

4. Give an account of the Northmen, telling who they were and what claims they have made.
5. What proofs are furnished to support these claims?
6. What results have followed the expeditions of the Northmen?

THE INDIANS

7. Give the origin of the Indians.
8. Why were they so called?
9. Give the estimated number of Indians on this continent at the time of its discovery.
10. Describe the Indians as to personal appearance, other characteristics, manner of living, government, religion, weapons, and money.
11. Name the principal divisions of the Indians.
12. What tribes were included in the Algonquin division?
13. Where was it located?
14. What tribes were included in the Wyandot division?
15. Where was it located?

16. What tribes were included in the Mobilian division ?

17. Where was it located ?

18. Where were the Cherokees located ?

19. Where were the Sioux located ?

THE REVIVAL OF LEARNING IN THE 15TH CENTURY

20. Who was Marco Polo ?

21. When did he live ?

22. Why did he become famous ?

23. What great inventions early in the 15th century ?

24. How did they cause a revival of learning ?

EARLY BUSINESS ROUTES

25. Name the great commercial cities of Europe in the 14th and 15th centuries.

26. Give the routes by which each carried on its trade with the East.

27. What interruptions to their business ?

28. Name some of the early Portuguese navigators and describe their voyages.

29. What was the great problem of maritime nations at the time of Columbus ?

COLUMBUS

30. What can you tell of the parents of Columbus ?

31. What educational advantages did he enjoy ?

32. Tell something of his voyages before 1492.

33. How did his marriage aid Columbus in carrying out his plans ?

34. What courts did he visit and with what results ?

35. Tell something of the motives and beliefs of Columbus.

36. Describe his first voyage as to the number of ships, the number of men, incidents of the voyage, its length, and its results.

37. Tell something of his subsequent voyages to the New World.

38. Give an account of his last years and their misfortunes.

39. Can you give some reasons for this condition of affairs ?

40. Give some of the prominent characteristics of Columbus.

41. What are some of the results of the work accomplished by this great navigator ?

42. Why was America so named ?

OTHER SPANISH EXPLORERS

43. Give an account of Ponce de Leon, telling when, where, and why he made his expedition to Florida.

44. What discovery was made by Balboa ?

45. Give an account of the voyage made by Magellan.

46. For what was Cortez noted ?

47. Describe the expedition of De Soto, giving the number of men, section explored, the great discovery and its date.

48. Give results.

49. What explorations were made by Coronado ?

50. Who was the first man to sail along the Pacific coast of America ?

51. Who founded St. Augustine ? When ? For what is the city noted ?

52. What city was founded by Espejo ? When ?

PORTUGUESE EXPLORERS

53. Name three early Portuguese navigators and tell something of their explorations.

FRENCH EXPLORERS

54. What can you say of Varrazani ?

55. Give an account of Cartier and his discoveries, giving date.

56. Give an account of Champlain's explorations, the cities he founded, his expedition with the Hurons and its results.

57. Who was the Huguenot leader in France ?

58. Give an account of the first Huguenot expedition to America, giving date, location, number of emigrants, and results of expedition.

59. Give an account of the second Huguenot expedition to America, giving date, location and results.

60. Give an account of the expedition of DeGourgues.

61. Give an account of the French explorations in the West, naming the first Jesuit explorers and giving the extent of their travels.

62. What purpose led to these explorations ?

63. Mention the special work of each Jesuit leader.

ENGLISH EXPLORERS

64. Give an account of the Cabots and their voyages, giving date.

65. Explain the theory of John Cabot.

66. What was the great result of these voyages ?

67. What can you say of Frobisher ?

68. Give an account of Sir Francis Drake and his voyages.

69. What new idea advanced by Sir Humphrey Gilbert ?

70. What plan was made by Sir Walter Raleigh ?

71. Give an account of Raleigh's first expedition to America, giving its purpose and results.

72. Describe Raleigh's second expedition, giving its purpose, the number of emigrants, governor, location, and results.

73. Describe Raleigh's third expedition, giving date, location, incidents, and result.

74. What route was followed by Gosnold ?

75. When and where did he make explorations ?

76. What explorations were made by Pring ?

77. What two companies received charters in 1606 ?

78. How did James I. divide the land in America ?

79. Give exact limits of the grants then made.

80. What can you say of the intervening territory ?

DUTCH EXPLORERS

81. Give an account of Henry Hudson's voyage in 1609, giving its purpose and results.

CLAIMS OF EUROPEAN NATIONS

82. What lands in America were claimed by Spain ?

83. What was the basis of this claim ?

84. What lands were claimed by England ?

85. Upon what basis did the English claim rest ?

86. What lands were claimed by France ?

87. What was the basis of the French claim ?

88. What did the Dutch claim ?

89. Upon what was the Dutch claim based ?

90. Mention the six oldest towns in America, naming the year in which each was founded and the nation under whose direction each was settled.

VIRGINIA

91. When, where, and by whom was Virginia settled?
92. Who was the English sovereign at that time?
93. What was the object of the settlement of Virginia?
94. When did the London company receive their first charter?
95. Give the provisions of the first Virginia charter.
96. Give the number and characteristics of the earliest Virginia colonists.
97. Tell something of their experience during the first few months in America.
98. What forms of government existed in this colony?
99. Define the different forms of colonial government: (*a*) voluntary association; (*b*) charter government; (*c*) proprietary government; (*d*) royal province.
100. When did Virginia receive its second charter?
101. What changes in the government under this charter?
102. What change in territorial limits?
103. When was the third charter given to Virginia?
104. What change in the administration of affairs under this charter?
105. When and why did Virginia become a royal province?
106. Of what religious faith were the first settlers of Virginia?
107. What can you say of the growth of the Virginia colony?
108. Mention some of the early troubles in Virginia.
109. Describe the "Starving Time" in Virginia, giving date, cause, extent, and results.

110. For what three events was the year 1619 remarkable ?

111. When, where, and by whom was slavery introduced into America ?

112. What can you say of the coming of women to the Virginia colony ?

113. Describe the first legislative assembly of Virginia, giving date, place of meeting, members composing it, its name, and its work.

114. What were some of the first causes of prosperity in Virginia ?

115. Describe the Indian troubles of 1622 and 1644.

116. Describe the navigation acts, giving their provisions, and the causes and results of the passage of these laws.

117. Describe Bacon's rebellion, giving date, place, cause, leader, incidents, and results.

118. Name some of the great reforms in the Virginia colony.

119. What can you say of the college of William and Mary ?

120. Give a brief sketch of John Smith and of his services in America.

121. Who was Christopher Newport ?

122. Give a brief note upon each of the following: (a) Lord Delaware; (b) Governor Dale; (c) Sir William Berkeley; (d) Nathaniel Bacon; (e) Powhatan; (f) Pocahontas.

NEW YORK

123. Give an account of the discovery of the Hudson river.

124. When, where, and by whom was New York settled ?

125. Describe the "Patroon System", giving terms of agreement between the patroons and the government, and between the patroons and the emigrants.

126. For what object was New York settled ?

127. What can you say of the people who settled New York ?

128. What was the form of government under the Dutch ?

129. What was the form of government under the English ?

130. Of what church were most of the settlers of New York ?

131. What can you say of the growth of the Dutch colony ?

132. Give a sketch of each of the four Dutch governors of New York.

133. Give an account of the conquest of New Sweden.

134. What trouble between the Dutch and the English ?

135. How was it settled ?

136. For what reasons did the English desire the control of New Netherlands ?

137. What claim was made by England ?

138. How was the conquest of New Netherlands brought about ?

139. Describe the negro plot.

140. What can you say of King's college ?

141. Give a biographical sketch of each of the following: (a) Cornelius May; (b) Edmund Andros; (c)

Jacob Leisler; (*d*) Captain Kidd, (*e*) and Lord Bello-mont.

142. Describe the Dongan charter.

143. Give an account of the treaty between the English and the Iroquois.

144. Give an account of the Zenger trial, giving the cause, incidents, and results.

NEW JERSEY

145. Give the name and date of the first Dutch settlement in New Jersey.

146. When and where did the English first settle within this colony?

147. Why was New Jersey so named?

148. What inducements were offered by the English for the settlement of New Jersey?

149. How was the colony divided and owned?

150. How was New Jersey governed?

151. What college in New Jersey?

MASSACHUSETTS.—I. PLYMOUTH COLONY

152. What two colonies were made in what is now Massachusetts?

153. Explain the difference between Pilgrims and Puritans.

154. Describe the wanderings of the Pilgrims.

155. Give an account of the journey of the Pilgrims to America and name the date and place of landing.

156. Describe the character of the Pilgrims.

157. What can you say of the growth of the Plymouth colony?

158. Describe the sufferings of the Pilgrims during their first winter in America.

159. What was the government of the Plymouth colony up to 1692 ?

160. Describe their first compact.

161. Name their first governor.

162. Define voluntary association.

163. Give a brief sketch of each of the following:
(a) John Carver; (b) William Bradford; (c) William Brewster; (d) Miles Standish; (e) Massasoit.

II. MASSACHUSETTS BAY COLONY

164. What were the first two settlements in Massachusetts Bay colony ?

165. When and by whom was each settled ?

166. Why was this colony formed ?

167. Give the characteristics of the Puritans.

168. What forms of government existed in this colony ?

169. Who were allowed the privilege of voting ?

170. Describe the settlement of Boston, giving date of settlement and name of founder.

171. Give a sketch of Governor Winthrop.

172. Give a good account of Roger Williams and the principles he advocated, and his banishment from Massachusetts Bay colony.

173. Give a brief sketch of Mrs. Anne Hutchinson.

174. Give an account of the persecution of the Quakers in Massachusetts.

175. What peculiar ideas were held by them ?

176. Give an account of the founding of Harvard college.

177. Describe the Union of the New England colonies, giving date, names of colonies that united, object of the union, its management, and its name.

178. Describe King Philip's war, giving date, location, cause, incidents, and results.

179. Describe the Salem witchcraft, giving date, delusions, and results.

180. How did Massachusetts become a royal province?

181. What effect had the English revolution of 1688 upon the American colonies?

182. What change in the government of the colony in 1692?

183. Give a brief sketch of Rev. John Eliot.

NEW HAMPSHIRE

184. Give an account of the founding of New Hampshire, showing date, names of proprietors, extent of grant, its first name, and the first settlement.

185. What was the object of the settlement of New Hampshire?

186. What forms of government in this colony?

187. Of what religious faith were the settlers of this colony?

188. How was the land divided?

189. With what colony was New Hampshire afterwards united, and for what reasons?

190. How did Maine become a part of Massachusetts, and when did it become a separate State?

191. Describe the Scotch Irish settlement in New Hampshire.

192. What college in New Hampshire?

193. What colonies claimed Vermont?

194. Why was it called the "New Hampshire Grants"?

195. What action by King George in 1675?

196. When did Vermont declare itself independent?

CONNECTICUT

197. Where and by whom was the first fort in Connecticut built ?

198. What was the object of the settlement of Connecticut ?

199. Give an account of Winthrop's settlement in Connecticut.

200. Give an account of Rev. Thomas Hooker's settlement at Hartford.

201. Explain the first government established in Connecticut.

202. Where was the colony established by John Winthrop ? Where that established by Thomas Hooker ?

203. Give an account of the Davenport colony at New Haven.

204. What settlements first formed the Connecticut colony ?

205. What addition to the colony in 1644 ?

206. When did Connecticut receive its charter from the king ?

207. What can you say of this charter ?

208. Give three reasons that led to the settlement of Connecticut.

209. Give an account of the Pequod war, showing date, location, Indian methods, incidents, and result.

210. Who was Sir Edmund Andros ?

211. Give an account of the Charter Oak.

MARYLAND

212. When, where, and by whom was Maryland settled ?

213. What was the object of this settlement ?

214. Where did the first Lord Baltimore attempt to plant a colony in America ?

215. What title had the second Lord Baltimore in Maryland ?

216. What powers were given to him ?

217. Describe the settlement at St. Mary's.

218. What can you say of the Wigwam church ?

219. To what extent were religious and political privileges enjoyed ?

220. What were the Toleration acts ?

221. What results followed the passage of these acts ?

222. Describe Clayborne's rebellion, giving causes, incidents, and results.

223. Give a brief account of the civil wars in Maryland.

224. What forms of government existed at various times in Maryland ?

225. What can you say of Mason and Dixon's Line ?

RHODE ISLAND

226. When, where, and by whom was Rhode Island settled ?

227. For what object was this colony established ?

228. Give a sketch of Roger Williams.

229. Give an account of the friendly relations between Roger Williams and the Narragansett Indians.

230. What other exiles made settlements in Rhode Island ?

231. Give an account of the government of the colony.

232. What can you say of the Rhode Island charter ?

233. What college in Rhode Island ?

DELAWARE

- 234. When, where, and by whom was the first permanent settlement made in Delaware ?
- 235. What was the object of this settlement ?
- 236. What action by Peter Stuyvesant ?
- 237. How did Delaware become an English colony ?
- 238. How did it become a Quaker colony ?
- 239. When did Delaware become a separate State ?
- 240. What form of government in Delaware ? Define.
- 241. To whom did Delaware rightfully belong ?

NORTH CAROLINA

- 242. When and where was the settlement of North Carolina commenced ?
- 243. What was the object of this settlement ?
- 244. What was the form of government in this colony ?
- 245. To whom was the land granted ?
- 246. What was included in the grant ?
- 247. Describe the Grand Model, giving the authors, plans for division of lands, classes of people, methods of government, and results.
- 248. Why was the colony divided ?
- 249. What can you say of the growth of North Carolina ?

SOUTH CAROLINA

- 250. When, where, and by whom was South Carolina settled ?
- 251. What two reasons for its settlement ?
- 252. What forms of government in the colony ? Define.
- 253. What can you say of the Huguenots in South Carolina ?

254. What important products were cultivated there?

255. What can you say of the growth of South Carolina ?

PENNSYLVANIA

256. Give a brief sketch of William Penn.

257. Why did Penn establish this colony ?

258. Give date and location of the first settlement in Pennsylvania.

259. What form of government in Pennsylvania ? Define.

260. Give reasons for the great prosperity of this colony.

261. Tell something of the growth of Philadelphia.

262. What was the Great Law ?

263. Give some of its provisions.

264. Give an account of Penn's treaty with the Indians and its consequences.

265. Give an account of Penn's relations with Delaware.

GEORGIA

266. When, where, and by whom was Georgia settled?

267. For what purpose was this colony planted ?

268. Give a sketch of James Oglethorpe.

269. What settlers afterward came to this colony ?

270. What products were cultivated in Georgia ?

271. What trade restrictions were imposed upon this colony ?

272. Give an account of the troubles between the English settlers in Georgia and the Spanish in Florida.

273. Give a sketch of John and Charles Wesley.

274. What can you say of George Whitefield ?

275. What forms of government existed in Georgia ?
Define.

INTER-COLONIAL WARS

276. What was the first Inter-Colonial war called ?
Give date.

277. What nations were engaged in this war ?

278. Give causes and principal events of this war.

279. Name the treaty by which the war was closed
and give results.

280. What was the second Inter-Colonial war called ?
Give date.

281. What nations were engaged in this war ?

282. What is this war sometimes called ?

283. Give a brief account of the causes of trouble
in Europe and in America.

284. What part was taken by the Iroquois ?

285. Name the treaty by which the war was closed
and give results.

286. What was the third Inter-Colonial war ? Give
date.

287. What is this war sometimes called ?

288. What nations were engaged in this war ?

289. Give causes of the war.

290. What was the principal event of this war in
America ?

291. Name the treaty by which the war was closed,
and give results.

292. What was the fourth Inter-Colonial war called ?
Give date.

293. Name the causes of this war.

294. Name the five objective points and explain what
is meant by the term objective points.

295. Show the importance of each of these points.

296. What was the object of the French and Indian war ?

297. What can you say of the number of the French and of the English respectively ?

298. What parts of America were occupied by each ?

299. What can you say of the land west of the Alleghany mountains ?

300. What was done by the Ohio Land company ?

301. Describe Washington's journey, giving date, object, extent, and results.

302. How did the war open ?

303. Mention some events of the year 1754.

304. Describe the destruction of Acadia, giving causes, name of English commander, and the results of the expedition.

305. Describe the battle of Fort Duquesne, giving a sketch of Braddock, the long march, the surprise. Washington's conduct, and the result of the battle.

306. What can you say of the battle of Lake George ?

307. What can you say of the war during the years 1756 and 1757 ?

308. What can you say of William Pitt and of his management of the war ?

309. What English victories were won during the year 1758 ?

310. What important English victories during the year 1759 ?

311. Describe the battle of Quebec, giving names of commanders and the number of troops on each side, positions occupied, strategem arranged by Wolfe, result of the engagement, and the importance of the battle.

- 312. When was peace declared ?
- 313. Give terms of the treaty of Paris (1763).
- 314. Give causes and results of Pontiac's war.
- 315. Give results of the French and Indian war as regards cost, and the effect upon the French, the English, and the Spanish respectively.
- 316. In what ways was the war of great advantage to the colonists ?

THE ALBANY CONVENTION

- 317. When was it called ?
- 318. Who were the delegates to the convention ?
- 319. What was the object of the meeting ?
- 320. Describe Franklin's plan of union, and tell why it was not adopted.

CONDITION OF THE COLONIES IN 1763

- 321. Name the thirteen original colonies.
- 322. What was the population of the colonies in 1763?
- 323. What can you say of slavery in the colonies at this time ?
- 324. What was meant by indentured servants ?
- 325. What were then the largest cities of the country?
- 326. What colonies had charter governments ?
- 327. Which had proprietary governments ?
- 328. Which were royal provinces ?
- 329. What can you say of the legislative assemblies ?
- 330. What can you say of the laws of that time ?
- 331. What is said of the language and the religious beliefs of the American colonists ?
- 332. What were the chief occupations of the people ?
- 333. Name the exports of the North and those of the South.

334. Give an account of farm-life in the colonies as contrasted with city life at that time.

335. What can you say of methods of travel in those days ?

336. Where were free schools first established ?

337. What educational advantages were enjoyed in the middle colonies ?

338. What is said of the schools at the South ?

339. Name some of the oldest colleges in America, giving the dates of their establishment.

340. Name the earliest American writers and mention some work of each.

341. Who were the earliest American artists ?

342. What was the first regular newspaper printed in America ?

343. How were the mails conveyed ?

THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR

344. Mention some remote causes of the revolution.

345. Mention the direct causes of the war.

346. Define the Navigation acts.

347. How was the French and Indian war a cause of the revolution ?

348. Describe the Stamp act and tell why it was never enforced.

349. Describe the tax on tea and tell why it was made, and why it was opposed by the Americans.

350. Give an account of the tea-ships sent to various American cities.

351. Describe the Boston Tea party and show how the Boston people were punished for this act.

352. What were writs of assistance ?

353. Describe the Mutiny act.

354. Describe the Boston massacre, and mention its results.

355. Explain (*a*) the Boston Port bill, (*b*) Sons of Liberty, (*c*) Minute men, (*d*) Whigs, (*e*) Tories.

356. Give an account of the first continental congress, giving date, place of meeting, character of men composing it, colonies represented, and the work of the congress.

357. Explain "Taxation without Representation".

358. Give an account of the Provincial congress in Massachusetts.

359. Give an account of the battle of Lexington and the "Concord Fight", giving preliminary events (orders of the king, gathering of stores, and watching of British movements), and the results of the battle.

360. What was the effect of this battle upon the American people?

361. Give an account of the Second Continental congress, giving date, place of meeting, and work accomplished.

362. Give an account of the capture of Ticonderoga, and show the importance of this event.

363. Describe the battle of Bunker Hill, giving date, cause, commanders, number of forces, and results.

364. What was the effect of this battle?

365. When and where did Washington take command of the American army?

366. What was the condition of the army when Washington took command?

367. Describe the attack on Quebec, giving date, reasons for the expedition, events, and results.

368. Give an account of the siege of Boston and the departure of the British.

369. Describe the battle of Fort Moultrie, giving date, location, incidents, and results.

370. Who were the Hessians?

371. Declaration of Independence: (a) Give the resolution of Richard Henry Lee, June, 1776. (b) Who seconded the motion? (c) Name the committee appointed to draft the Declaration of Independence. (d) By whom was it written? (e) When was it adopted by congress?

372. Campaign near New York: (a) Why did Washington remove his headquarters to New York? (b) What defences were built by the Americans? (c) From what three places did the British army come? (d) Where were Howe's headquarters?

373. Describe the battle of Long Island, giving the date and result of the battle. Show why it was of great importance.

374. What position was taken by the Americans after the battle of Long Island?

375. What occurred at each of the following places: (a) White Plains, (b) Fort Washington, and (c) West Point?

376. What can you say of the conduct of Charles Lee at this time?

377. Describe the retreat through New Jersey, showing Washington's purpose, the number in pursuit, incidents of the retreat, and the escape of the Americans. Show the position of the British after the Americans had crossed the Delaware.

378. Give an account of the capture of Charles Lee.

379. Describe the battle of Trenton, giving date, incidents, and results.

380. What effect had this battle upon the American people ?

381. To what place did congress adjourn ?

382. What work was accomplished by the congress of 1776 ?

383. What were the great needs of the country at this time ?

384. Give a sketch of Robert Morris and his work in behalf of the American cause.

385. Describe the battle of Princeton, giving date, position of forces, the delay of Cornwallis, the attack, and the result.

386. Where did Washington make his headquarters during the winter of 1776-1777 ?

387. Pennsylvania campaign: (a) When did the Pennsylvania campaign begin ? (b) What plan was followed by Washington ? (c) How did the British get their forces into Pennsylvania ?

388. Describe the battle of Brandywine.

389. When did the British capture Philadelphia ?

390. To what places did congress adjourn ?

391. Describe the battle of Germantown.

392. What forts were captured by the British ?

393. Where were Washington's headquarters during the winter of 1777 and 1778 ?

394. Burgoyne's invasion: (a) When did the invasion begin ? (b) Give the number of British. (c) Show the plans of Burgoyne, and (d) name the first successes of the British.

395. What can you say of Schuyler and Gates ?

396. Describe the battle of Bennington, giving cause and results.

397. Give an account of the battle of Oriskany.

398. Give an account of St. Leger's expedition and its results.

399. Describe the first battle of Saratoga.

400. Describe the second battle of Saratoga, giving date, cause, and results.

401. Describe the surrender of Burgoyne and its results.

402. Show the great importance of the second battle of Saratoga.

403. Name noted foreigners who entered the American army during 1776 and 1777.

404. What financial assistance did France furnish?

405. Give an account of the Conway Cabal.

406. What can you say of the winter in Valley Forge?

407. What special services were rendered by Baron Steuben at this time?

408. Give an account of the alliance between France and the Americans.

409. What were some of the advantages gained by the treaty with France?

410. How did this alliance affect the conduct of the British?

411. What change in British officers in 1778?

412. Give an account of the evacuation of Philadelphia by the British.

413. To what officer did Washington give the command at Philadelphia?

414. Describe the battle of Monmouth, giving date, cause, incidents, and results.

415. How did Washington place his army after the British retreated to New York city ?

416. What raids were made by the Tories and Indians in 1778 ?

417. What change was made in the plans of the British in December, 1778 ?

418. What State was conquered by the British in 1779 ?

419. What can you say of the two armies during the year 1779 ?

420. Describe Sullivan's expedition to the Mohawk Valley.

421. Give an account of the storming of Stony Point.

422. What raids were made into Connecticut in 1779 ? For what purpose ?

423. Describe Lincoln's expedition against Savannah in 1779.

424. What can you tell of Colonel Hamilton in the Northwest ?

425. Describe Colonel Clark's expedition and the results of the campaign.

426. Naval exploits: (a) What were privateers ? (b) How many British vessels were captured by the Americans during the revolution ? (c) Give an account of Paul Jones and his exploits.

427. Give some reasons for the inactivity of the two armies in 1779.

428. Describe the siege of Charleston in 1780, giving results.

429. What British officer was in command at the South ?

430. What method of warfare was used by Cornwallis ?

431. Describe the battle of Camden and its results upon the American army.

432. Partisan corps: (a) What is meant by a partisan corps? (b) Name partisan leaders at the South and show what they accomplished for the American cause.

433. Arnold's treason: (a) What can you say of the character of Arnold? (b) What events may have influenced him to become a traitor? (c) How and when was his treachery discovered? (d) What reward did he receive?

434. Describe the battle of King's Mountain giving the position of the British, names of commanders, the result of the attack, and the importance of the battle.

435. What re-inforcements from France arrived in 1780?

436. Where were Washington's headquarters during the winter of 1780-1781?

437. Who commanded the little American army at the South in 1781?

438. What was his plan of action?

439. Give an account of the battle of Cowpens, giving results.

440. Describe Greene's retreat to Virginia.

441. What can you say of the engagement at Guilford court house, and its results?

442. What occurred at Hobkirk's Hill?

443. How long did Greene's southern campaign last?

444. Name the last battle of this campaign.

445. Give results of Greene's campaign.

446. What can you say of Greene's methods?

447. What depredations were committed by Arnold during the year 1781 ?

448. To what place did Cornwallis take his army ?

449. Who commanded the American forces in Virginia ?

450. How was Cornwallis driven from Petersburg ?

451. What place did the British fortify ?

452. Why was this place chosen ?

453. Explain Washington's plans.

454. How did he place the French and American forces ?

455. What difficulty arose when the army reached Philadelphia ?

456. How was this difficulty overcome ?

457. How were the British deceived ?

458. Siege of Yorktown: (a) With what forces was the siege of Yorktown undertaken ? (b) When did it begin, and how long did it last ? (c) How was Cornwallis forced to surrender ? (d) Give the number of prisoners taken. (e) Give results of the surrender.

459. Where did Washington make his headquarters after the surrender at Yorktown ?

460. When, and by what treaty, was the revolutionary war closed ?

461. Give the terms of the treaty of Paris.

462. What diplomatic victory was won at Paris at this time ?

463. Give the cost of the revolutionary war for England and for the United States.

464. What cities were held by the British after the war was practically over ?

465. What excuse had the British for holding military posts after the treaty had been made ?

466. At the close of the revolutionary war, what was the condition of the country in regard to business in general, the army, and finances ?

467. What were the Articles of Confederation ?

468. When did they become operative ?

469. What can you say of the western lands owned by the different States ?

470. Give some provisions of the Articles of Confederation.

471. How were the Articles of Confederation defective ?

472. Describe Shays's rebellion, giving causes, incidents, and results.

473. What has been called the critical period of American history ?

474. What was the ordinance of 1787 ?

475. Name some of its provisions.

476. Give an account of the convention of 1787, giving the reason for calling the meeting, the States represented, and the work accomplished.

477. When did the new Constitution go into effect ?

478. What did the revolution accomplish for the American colonies ?

479. What did the new Constitution do for them ?

480. What is meant by the Bill of Rights ?

481. How many amendments have been added to the original Constitution ?

482. Explain the compromises of the Constitution :
(a) as to the relations of the State and national gov-

ernments; (*b*) as to representation of States; (*c*) as to the counting of slaves for representation; (*d*) as to taxes on exports and the importation of slaves.

483. What is the legislative department, and of what does it consist?

484. How are representatives chosen and for what term?

485. What are the requirements for the office of representative?

486. How is representation apportioned among the States?

487. How are members of the House chosen? Who presides over the House of Representatives?

488. What powers has the House of Representatives?

489. How are the senators chosen, and for what term?

490. What requirements for the office of senator?

491. What is the number of senators, and who is the presiding officer in the Senate?

492. What is the executive department?

493. What is a veto?

494. When may a bill become law, over the president's veto?

495. What are the requirements for the offices of president and vice-president?

496. How is the president elected, and for what term?

497. What is the judicial department?

498. What can you say of the members of the Supreme Court.

499. How are they appointed, and for what term?

500. What can you say of the decisions of this department?

501. Name some provisions of the Constitution in regard to freedom of speech.

502. What can you say of laws relating to morals and public conduct ?

503. What matters are always settled by the congress?

504. What can you say of trial by jury ?

505. How did our first political parties originate ?

506. What names were given them ?

507. Name noted representatives of each party.

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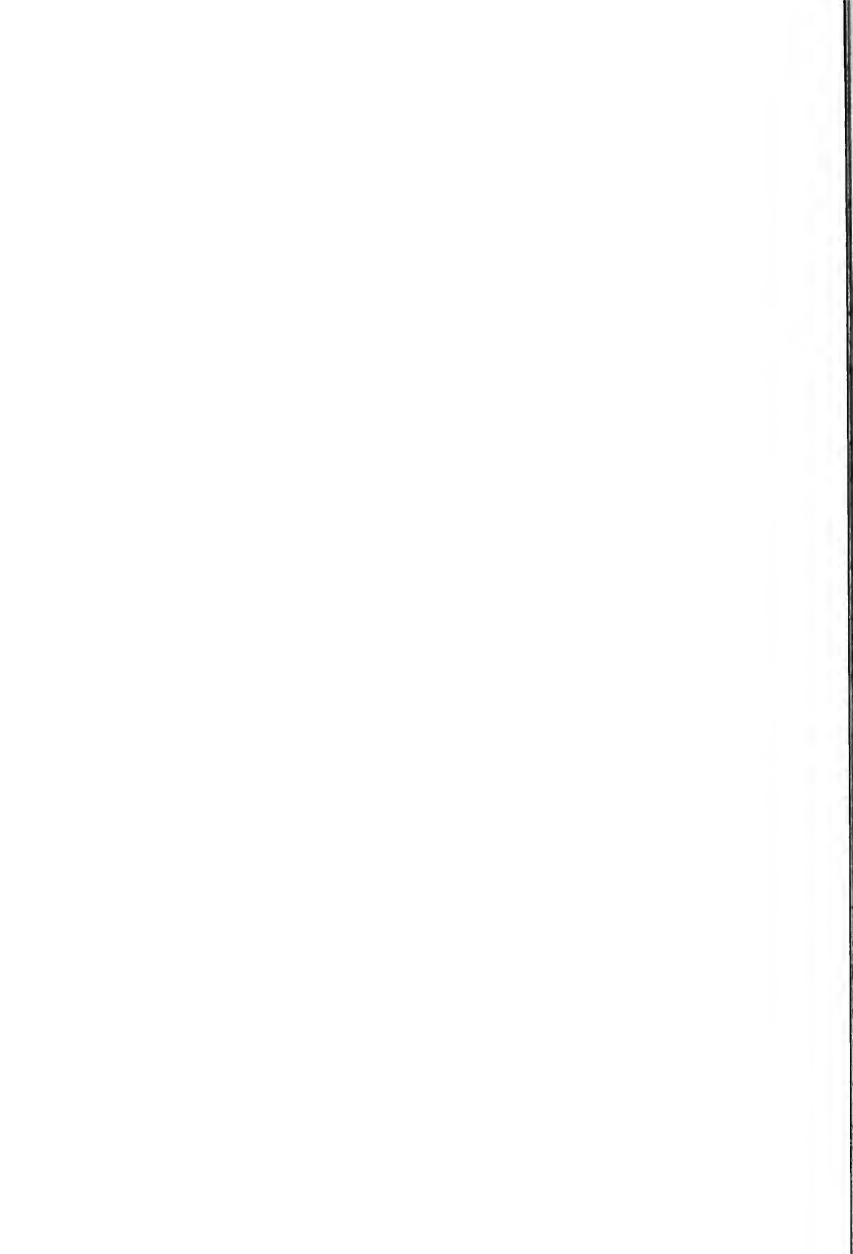
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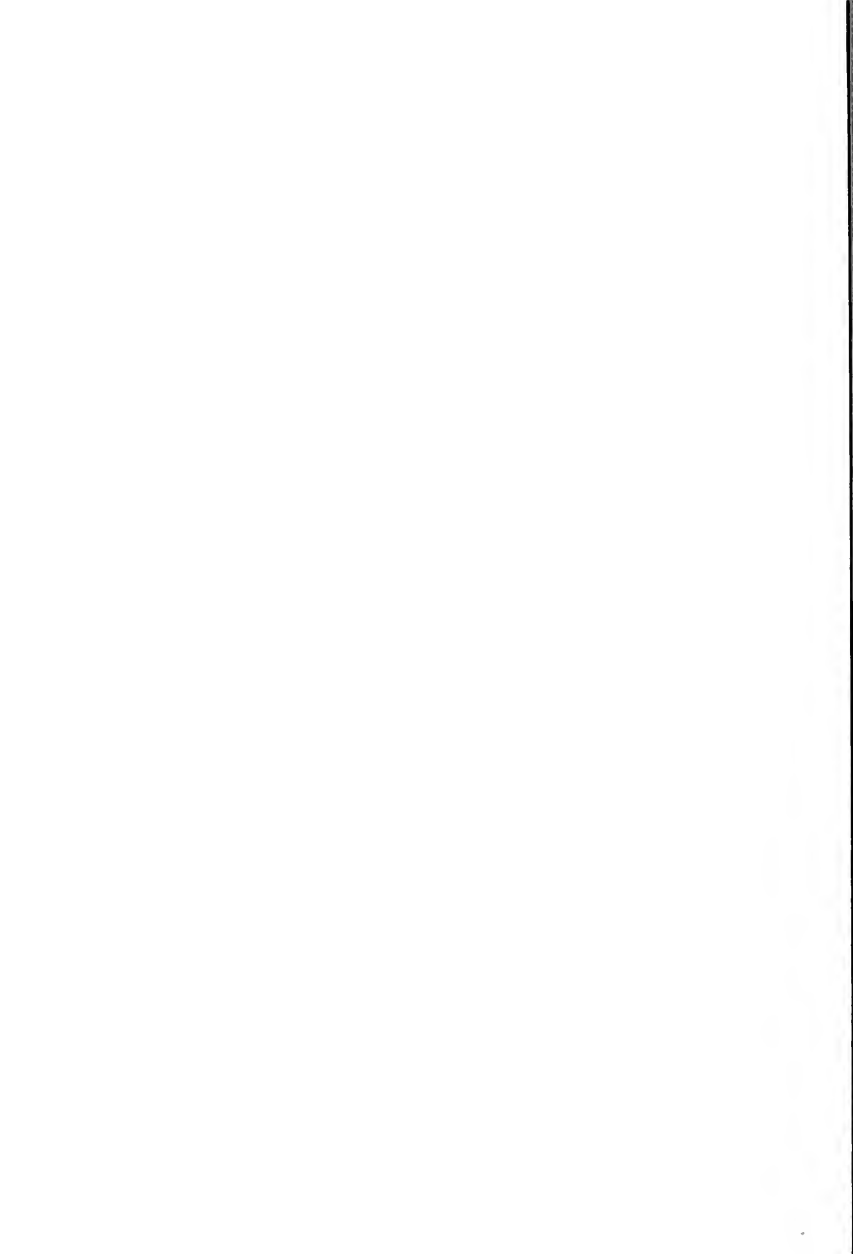
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